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LABOR AND INDUSTRY

Monthly Bulletin

DEPARTMENT OF LABOR AND INDUSTRY COMMONWEALTH OF PENNSYLVANIA

C. B. CONNELLEY, *Commissioner*



WOMEN AND CHILDREN NUMBER

JANUARY, 1923

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The issue preceding this one was dated November 1922, and was recorded as Vol. I, Number 7. It is unfortunate that it will be impossible to complete this series with No. 8, for December 1922, owing to congestion in state printing. The delay made it advisable to start at this time with Vol. II of "Labor and Industry" for January 1923.



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LABOR AND INDUSTRY

Monthly Bulletin

of the

Department of Labor and Industry

COMMONWEALTH OF PENNSYLVANIA

CLIFFORD B. CONNELLEY, Commissioner

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Industrial Board Bureau of Inspection Division of Hygiene and Engineering
Compensation Board Workmen's Compensation Bureau Rehabilitation Bureau,
Bureau of Mediation and Arbitration Bureau of Employment.

Vol. II.

HARRISBURG, PA., JANUARY, 1923.

No. 1

TRAINING APPRENTICES

Employers are finding it increasingly difficult to get skilled men to work for them due to shortage, and the need for training is stressed.

EDITOR'S NOTE.

The entrance of women into political life brings with it greater attention to matters affecting the welfare of workers in industry. The meeting of the Advisory Council on Women and Children in Industry in Harrisburg December 14 brought this fact home in a very convincing manner. The enthusiasm of the members who discussed the problems with which the council dealt, the business-like method in which they conducted their program, and the definiteness of action suggested in their legislative recommendations made the meeting one of extreme importance.

The consensus seemed that the day of social legislation is at hand. Out of five subjects for legislative consideration which will be dis-

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discussed at the council meeting the early part of February, two bear features of some significance. Endorsement of the 8-hour day for women and the minimum wage for women constituted two of the recommendations. An expression for an industrial home work law was a third but the two important questions mentioned as part of the legislative program were the creation of a Women's Bureau in the Department of Labor and Industry, and a recommendation for a more elaborate system of worker's education.

At the last session of the legislature a bill got as far as the governor's office to create a Bureau of Women and Children. This time it will probably be a Bureau of Women only. Chances of passage of such a law are more favorable this session because of administrative interest in the measure.

The subject of workers' education is considered by the council to be one of paramount importance. It was the principal subject under discussion at the last meeting. The continuation school, vocational guidance and more substantial education for the benefit of the workers, discussed from every angle, seemed to indicate a trend of thought along this line to remedy certain conditions believed to be at fault.

Commissioner Connelley has spent the best years of his life studying this problem from the practical viewpoint. His preeminence in this field is recognized. Andrew Carnegie had a dream a quarter of a century ago that training of workers was fundamental and Dr. Connelley tried to perpetuate that dream. Today he believes the root of the evil lies in the antiquated apprenticeship system. A substitute for, or a perfection of that system is needed, he believes. In the following article he explains this belief in the light of his own observations. It was delivered as an address on November 8, before the New England Foundryman's Association.

BY DR. CLIFFORD B. CONNELLEY

The pendulum of economic balance in the field of employment has swung in one year from widespread unemployment to that of actual labor shortage. Labor shortage is due to two causes: the restriction of immigration, coupled with after-war emigration, and the failure to recruit workers by a suitable system of apprenticeship. The loss by immigration affects the industries requiring considerable common labor. The loss from apprenticeship affects the skilled trades. The remedy for common labor is to raise the immigration percentage in accordance with a thorough study of economic facts and laws. This is a job for the government, with the aid of the industries concerned. The solution for the skilled trades is to devise a system of apprenticeship that is based upon a thorough study of the fundamental question—How many new workers are needed each year in a trade?

This is a job for industry and governmental bodies can perhaps come to the aid by suitable legislation.

The Associated General Contractors of America have made such a study for the building trades. The three general purposes for which workers are needed, according to their study, are "(1) to take the place of those who die (2) of those who retire and (3) to provide for the increase which should accompany a growing population." In the building trades study it was found that a trade like electrical work has a larger proportion of young men than brick laying. The reason is evident, the electrical field has been played up as a proper field for young men and little has been done towards encouraging youth to take up bricklaying. The actual figures show that for artisans that are brick and stone masons 54.7 are under 45 years of age and 45.3 over forty-five: for electricians 88.7 are under 45 and 11.3 over 45 years of age.

Offering a Future.

The heating and plumbing industries, according to the report, are, like the electrical trade, comparatively young men's industries the figures showing that 78.3 of the workers are under 45 and 21.7 over 45 years of age. It is interesting to note how the heating and plumbing industries, now that there is a shortage of skilled workmen, are bending every effort to reecruit apprentices. They have inaugurated a national apprenticeship campaign, with central headquarters in Evansville, Indiana. A form of poster has been prepared entitled, "Wanted, Real Boys", which employers are to put in their windows. A booklet on "A Business Future for American Boys" is being distributed containing attractive arguments in favor of these industries. It declares "That there are no trades, occupations or professions offering more advantages than plumbing and heating for the average boy of mechanical inclination. They offer more money in a ten-year period of life expectancy than the majority of trades or occupations. After a four year training or apprenticeship, plumbing or heating will give a boy a highly profitable trade; an interesting and constructive work, with plenty of diversity, offering unlimited possibilities for mechanical and commercial ability. The heating and plumbing trades will pay a boy a good wage while he is learning and make him worth even more in the long run than he can secure at some temporary highly-paid job." Facts are also cited as to the business possibilities and the potential market. For example, "of the 22,500,000 homes in the United States, approximately 18,500,000 are without efficient heating equipment and 17,500,000 are without adequate plumbing facilities. Only 680,000 of over 5,500,000 farm homes are equipped with plumbing", etc.

The first step then, towards arriving at a satisfactory solution of the apprenticeship problem is for the industry to know how many new workers it may need a year, based upon an actual study of conditions. Then a community-wide or nation-wide forward movement campaign should be inaugurated setting forth in an attractive manner the opportunities, advantages and possibilities of the industry. This is important for it has been my observation during the past four or five years that the industries themselves have shown very little interest in the matter of trade training and apprenticeship. Such publicity is necessary also to offset the tendency of the average American parent, who unlike the foreign parent, seldom ever cares to have his children follow in his footsteps, unless it might be in a well-established business or profession, an ownership of a corporation or a large progressive industry. There needs to be little fear of over supply in recruits, for organized labor will continue to serve in many cases as an affective safety valve.

Too Many Leaders: Not enough Workers.

Another important step, even more fundamental than a scientific knowledge of the need for the workers, is an understanding of what *modern* apprenticeship really means. It must be agreed that the purpose of apprenticeship is to train *workers* for industry rather than to train *leaders*. This fundamental objective must be kept in mind as much of the present day agitation on apprenticeship is far from the point. Four years in apprentice training is not to be confused with four years, school training in an educational institution which offers manual training. There are very few trade or technical schools that have shop courses that can in any real sense substitute for the industrial shop in the fundamentals of apprentice training. The school can contribute to apprenticeship by encouraging young people to enter industry. As we all know the chief emphasis in school training has generally been placed upon the profession as the highest goal in life. There was a time when this was necessary, as comparatively few pupils went beyond the grades. The increasing numbers in our high schools and colleges and engineering institutions have as much to do with the scarcity of apprentices as any one thing.

It is true that we have elementary industrial schools and technical high schools but these have not contributed much in the way of real apprenticeship. They point the student towards the engineering courses of a university or similar higher institution of learning and this explains the flood of engineers that we have today. There is no fault to find with this except to point out that the school does not develop workers in industry. The so-called "student apprentice" whether he be an undergraduate spending part-time in an industrial shop, or a graduate, taking the apprentice course in a shop, a com-

mon practice in some of our larger plants, has no idea other than his filling a position of leadership as foreman, Superintendent, general manager or an executive in industry. The present greatest need in industry of every kind is a trained worker rather than a trained leader.

Some twenty years ago, it was thought that the schools might be able to train the apprentices best along some building trades and some mechanical trades. In some parts of the country, the schools were successful, but the instruction in the course of time became so theoretical that much of the work had to be abandoned. It was then thought that the public school system might be used for training and I am not sure but that that is the place, providing of course they get the right kind of teachers to give the instruction.

It is most fitting in this district to have me say to you tonight that of all schools in the country, Boston has the honor of having the first American High School. The events leading to the organization of such an institution are evidence of the purpose which its founders intended it should serve. It is recorded in history that on the anniversary of the Battle of Bunker Hill, the school committee was considering the appointment and salaries of teachers in the Latin Grammar School. A member of the committee introduced a resolution authorizing the establishment of an English classical school. Later this committee reported the resolution favorably and the school committee voted that it was expedient to establish an English classical school in the town of Boston. It is strange to say that after a hundred years, Boston was among the first to develop what is known as industrial education. The handwork of the school known as the Sloyd System was placed here.

Then came a higher grade of technical training, copied from the Russian system. That was developed in 1876 and from that comes much of the work that is now used in technical colleges and in technical high schools.

Then we came to another era where we believed that the training of apprentices could be accomplished by the part-time system and the night school. Then came the purely trade school of short courses.

Then came the unit system in special schools of shorter courses.

Then came the well defined corporation schools with stipulated time courses, also the vestibule school for training of foremen and managers and yet with a few exceptions in the United States, very few schools train anything like an apprentice.

The reason for emphasizing the school phase of the apprentice training is because of the propaganda that is beginning to be put out against vocational education. Vocational education has a real value as far as industry is concerned. My firm conviction is that employers and employes can do no better service to education and to industry than to see to it that industrial education is encouraged rather than

discouraged. The fact is that industry, particularly the captains of industry, must take the right viewpoint in the education of the people on whom they depend. If social strata were eliminated and father and mother would recognize that the position of their boy pounding sand in the foundry is just as beneficial to the world as any profession, then we could get somewhere in apprenticeship. You probably are acquainted with the fact that a prominent national fraternity, the oldest college fraternity, is raising a large sum of money in the interest of classical education as over against the vocational. When one considers that 95 per cent of all the people of the United States work with their hands, and must continue to do so, if industry is to hold its own, it is unthinkable that men of intelligence will try to offset industrial education.

Manufacturers Can Help.

In this connection manufacturers can do no greater service than to take better advantage of the opportunities afforded under the Smith-Hughes Law, now commonly known as the National Vocational Education Act. This law passed in 1917 provides for the promotion of vocational education in agriculture, trades and industries by a co-operative plan between the Federal Board for Vocational Education and the State Boards of Education. In some states manufacturers and contractors have availed themselves of the opportunities for training apprentices under this plan. The effectiveness of this service has been constantly increasing during the past five years. During the past year the increase in enrollment of Federally aided trade and industrial schools and classes of all types was 54 per cent over 1921, and the total enrollment in the United States in Federally aided classes for the fiscal year ended June 30, 1922 was 297,788.

Child Labor and Apprenticeship.

The complaint is often heard that child labor legislation reacts against apprenticeship because in some cases it prevents the employment of apprentices under 18 years of age. Cases have been brought to our attention where the limitations have retarded the development of apprenticeship in trades where it is thought a 16 year old boy might be safely employed. There is something in the argument that in the initial stages of learning a trade the productive work of the apprentice does not warrant the payment of wages over about one-fourth of that paid the adult mechanic, and the young man who has reached the age of 18 is usually not willing to forego the attractive wages paid the operative specialist. It so happens too, that he often knocks about trying various juvenile employments and thereby loses the desire or willingness to study, which, of course, is essential in the acquirement of any trade.

In child labor legislation, two things must be kept in mind, the schooling of the child and the lifework of the child. The public school ought to have complete jurisdiction over the child fourteen years of age and under. Special child labor legislation might begin at this point for minors between fourteen and sixteen years of age. There are occupations in which a child at this age might engage, but we should make sure that such occupations are not of the blind alley type. Such minors must, from the necessity of attending continuation schools in Pennsylvania for example, be under the jurisdiction of the school authorities and under a limited jurisdiction of the State Department of Labor and Industry. The real child labor legislation should only include minors between 16 and 21 years of age. It should not confine itself merely to making lists of prohibitive occupations, but should be constructive as well in the sense of promoting a modern system of apprenticeship. The State of Wisconsin is one of the few governmental agencies that has worked out an apprenticeship system, the supervision of which, especially as to the contracts under the indenture plan, is by the State Industrial Commission.

Indenture.

The question arises: is the indenture plan the best type of apprenticeship? It has been generally believed that where well organized apprenticeship is practiced the proper procedure is to execute an indenture stating the conditions of apprenticeship as to length of service, varieties of experience provided, amount of supplementary instruction, rates of pay, and the agreement to be signed by the parties concerned.

A typical example of apprenticeship under this plan may be cited:-

"Apprenticeship courses cover a period of four years during which time apprentices are given a thorough, practical, departmental experience, in addition to related subjects. All apprentices must be sixteen years of age and have completed the seventh or eighth grade or its equivalent in elementary education.

"During the first six months the training is known as the observational period, the nature of duties for the foundry apprentices being, (1) firing ovens in female core room, (2) making small cores, (3) supplying material to female core makers, (4) placing cores in ovens, (5) blackening cores (small), (6) other general, miscellaneous core room work, (7) cutting rods (8) assisting when possible in large core work, side and main moulding, (9) assisting with bumper and shake out work."

It is interesting to note that only one apprentice out of eighteen desires to discontinue at the end of the observation period.

"During the remaining three and one-half years, the schedule is as follows, (1) shop schedule: First year, girls core room, small work twenty-six weeks. Second year, main core floor, twenty-six weeks, bench work, twenty-six weeks. Third and fourth years, brass foundry and cupola practice, twenty-six weeks, moulder's helper, twenty-six weeks. Preference of a moulder, 104 weeks and core maker, 104 weeks; total shop work 208 weeks or 9,984 hours. (2) Related subjects: First year, shop work, plant products, decimal equivalents and scales used, use of calipers and micrometers, blue print reading, study of foundry and pattern tools, elementary mathematics, algebra and geometry. Third year, elementary chemistry, trigonometry, jigs and fixtures, drafting and chemical foundry practice. Fourth year, physics, strength of materials, foundry practice, steel and alloys.

"All class instruction and lectures are given after regular working hours from 4:40 to 6:30 P. M., one evening each week during the entire apprenticeship.

"On satisfactory completion of each course apprentices receive a bonus of one hundred dollars and a position in the department of an advanced nature. The success in apprenticeship training is due as much to the cooperation of departmental foremen, superintendents and management as to the shop schedule and to the educational work."

Contract Unnecessary.

It is interesting to note on the other hand that in the nation-wide drive for apprentices for plumbing and heating trades there is to be no written contract entered into between the employer and the employe or the parents or guardian of the apprentice. This does away with the system of indenture which still carries with it some of the objectionable features of slavery. The development of apprenticeship under this open-door policy should be watched with interest and be encouraged. It should not be necessary in this day to bind down the apprentice to an iron-clad contract. We ought to begin to recognize that there is a responsibility upon industry, with the aid of the school and the State to make industry, attractive to the learner, rather than a dull routine which he must follow before he can join the privileged class of journeymen. I feel that we will get further in getting and holding apprentices under such a system rather than one that still smacks of Middle-age custom and procedure.

There is no royal road to apprenticeship, any more than there is to learning of any type. Word has come of a workers' school opened by an industrial association of the Pacific Coast which claims that by its system of training, apprenticeship can be speeded up so that a trade that required an apprenticeship of three to four years, can be

cut down to one year, after the student takes the required three months school course. There is more need for thoroughness in apprenticeship training today perhaps than ever, if industry is to keep step with progress. In every modern plan for apprenticeship the teaching must not only be from the shop side but there must be the related English language, mathematics, civics and industrial history, which make the apprentice intelligent rather than only a routine worker. Such training takes time.

A thorough apprentice training pays well. It is good business, not only for the worker but for the employer as well. The employer who feels that he cannot afford to train apprentices in an adequate way pays the price in unitemized overhead, such as labor turnover, poor craftsmanship, low production, wasted stock, spoiled work and damaged equipment.

THE CHILD LABOR PROBLEM

**This important subject has occasioned continual misunderstanding
due to the vagueness of the Act and the truth
should be known.**

EDITOR'S NOTE.

An opinion written by Emerson Collins, deputy attorney general, in answer to the query, which department—Mines or Labor and Industry—has jurisdiction over the employment of minors in coal mines, was sent to Commissioner Connelley on December 5, 1922. Two important findings are revealed in this opinion. They are:

1. That the Child Labor Act of 1915 under its own terms extends to coal mining operations (a) by defining an "establishment" as any place where work is done for compensation other than that on farms or in private homes, and (b) by specific mention in Section 5, of employment "in any anthracite or bituminous coal mine" as unlawful for minors under the age of 16 years.

2. That the enforcement of the act is within the domain and duty of the Department of Labor and Industry, and that a duty to enforce its provisions is shared with attendance officers and the police. The absence of any specific reference to mine inspectors brings up the question, in the opinion of the attorney general, of the right of De-

partment of Labor and Industry inspectors to enter a mine. However, this question is disposed of by calling upon the cooperation of the State Bureau of Mines.

The wording of the opinion on this point is rather interesting. Collins states, "we cannot, of course, imply from the aforesaid duty of the Department of Labor and Industry any right or authority for its inspectors, officers or employes to enter coal mines. It is obvious that their presence there might not only be dangerous to themselves, but an actual menace to the safety of those working in the mines. It is unlikely, however, that the inability of the Labor and Industry inspectors to enter mines presents any serious difficulty in the discharge of their said duty. Minors employed in the mines come and go, and it would be easily within the means of these inspectors to learn whether the act as to them is being violated. Furthermore, it would be proper for the Department of Labor and Industry to call upon the Department of Mines to furnish any information within its knowledge, or obtainable by it, helpful or necessary to its enforcement, and it would be the duty of the Department of Mines to furnish it."

Concerning other Acts on the statute books which would appear to interfere with the enforcement of the Child Labor Act by the Department of Labor and Industry, the general repealler is said to apply to vitiate the force of prior acts that specifically charge the Department of Mines with regulation of child labor in coal mines. The Report of the Attorney General 1917-18 is cited to show the legislative intent.

"We must presume that the legislature did not intend that there should be in force at the same time two distinct acts covering the same subject matter, for that would not merely be idle and useless but misleading. The Act of 1915 manifestly was intended to be a general and complete revision of, and stand as a substitute for, the old law on the subject of child labor."

The chief difficulties that have been encountered by the Department of Labor and Industry in the enforcement of the Child Labor Legislation are: (1) The divided responsibility of enforcement among the Department of Labor and Industry, the Department of Public Instruction and the municipal authorities, without setting forth specifically the provisions for which each is responsible. (2) The inevitable conflict that results from separating the coal mining industry from the general child labor and placing it under the jurisdiction of the Department of Mines by prior legislation and by failure to note the exemption of this industry in the Child Labor Act of 1915.

(3) The misunderstanding and rather unfavorable reflection upon this department by reports issued by the Federal Government on Child Labor in Pennsylvania, in not stating clearly the complications that exist in Pennsylvania in connection with responsibility of enforcement of Child Labor legislation. (4) The complaints from the various child welfare organizations that violations of the law are common and that there seems to be widespread ignorance on the part of some employers as to the provisions of the act and as to the rulings of the Industrial Board. (5) That employers in certain industries feel that child labor restrictions have interfered with apprenticeship to such an extent as to affect the future of industry.

Section 24 of the Child Labor Act of 1915 provides:-

"It shall be the duty of the Commissioner of Labor and Industry, the attendance officers of the various school districts, and the police of the various cities, boroughs and townships of this Commonwealth to enforce the provisions of this act. The act contains twenty-six sections, including the four general sections, which have to do with (1) violation and penalty, (2) enforcement, (3) repeal and (4) when the act shall take effect. Nine sections may be properly considered as labor matters in so far as the jurisdiction of the present Department of Labor and Industry is concerned. It should be stated in this connection that the provisions of these sections in so far as they apply to children employed in coal mines—bituminous and anthracite—are not enforced by this Department, but come under the jurisdiction of the State Department of Mines. The 13 other sections of the act are entirely within the province of the State Department of Public Instruction. One section on street trades, which for the sake of argument, is considered within the enforcing powers of the Department of Labor and Industry, is a provision that can only be enforced with some degree of satisfaction by the municipal authorities with the possible cooperation of the State Department of Public Instruction.

I. Provisions Enforceable by the Department of Labor and Industry.

The following is a brief abstract of the main sections of the Act which are directly within the province of the Department of Labor and Industry.

- (1) Section 1. Definitions.
- (2) Section 2. Prohibition of employment of minors under 14 years of age.
- (3) Section 4. Hours of Labor for minors under 16 years of age.
- (4) Section 5. List of prohibited employments for minors under 16 years of age and under 18 years of age

and the authority of the Industrial Board to declare other employments dangerous for minors under 18 years of age.

- (5) Section 6. Hours of Labor for minors in messenger service, etc.
- (6) Section 7. Street trades. This, as stated, is more properly within the province of the municipal authorities in cooperation with the State Department of Public Instruction.
- (7) Section 8. The filing of employment certificates for minors under 16 years of age.
- (8) Section 21. Posting of sections of the act in establishments where minors are employed.
- (9) Section 22. Evidence of age of minors.

II. Provisions Enforceable by the Department of Public Instruction.

- (1) Section 3. Continuation School Requirements for Minors between 14 and 16 years of age.
- (2) Section 9. Issuance of employment certificates.
- (3) Section 10. Method of applying for employment certificates.
- (4) Section 11. Classes of Certificates.
- (5) Section 12. General Employment Certificates.
- (6) Section 13. Course required for minor to receive general employment certificates.
- (7) Section 14. Certificates of Physical fitness.
- (8) Section 15. Evidence of Age Requirements.
- (9) Section 16. Vacation Employment Certificates.
- (10) Section 17. Employers' Responsibility to issuing officers in connection with employment certificates.
- (11) Section 18. Forms of Certificates, etc.
- (12) Section 19. When employment certificate is refused.
- (13) Section 20. Enforcement of the Act, attendance officers, etc.

III. Provisions Enforceable by the Municipal Authorities.

Due to obvious reasons it is a difficult matter to place responsibility upon municipal authorities for the enforcement of the provisions of the Child Labor Act, with a view of having anything like uniform enforcement. The one provision that could most easily be enforced by the local police is section 7 of the Act on street trades.

As stated, the Child Labor Act of 1915 charges the Department of Labor and Industry, the attendance officers of the various school districts of the State Department of Public Instruction, and the municipal authorities with the enforcement of its various provisions. There is nothing in the act to indicate that the mining industry is

not covered by this act. It is only fair, due to recent Federal reports to point out the fact, that the health and safety of minors in and about bituminous coal mines and anthracite collieries or breakers are under the State Department of Mines by specific act of legislature. This act was passed by the Assembly and approved by the Governor of the Commonwealth June 15th, 1911, and has never been specifically repealed.

This Act provides:

Section 1: That from and after the passage of this act, no minor, under the age of fourteen years shall be employed, permitted, or suffered to work in, about, or for any coal-breaker or washery, in or about the outside workings of any coal mine.

Section 3: That no minor under the age of sixteen years shall be employed in or about or for any establishment or industry named in section one of this act, unless the employer of said minor procures and keeps on file, and accessible to the mine inspector, the employment certificate as hereinafter provided, issued to said minor, and keeps two complete lists of all minors under the age of sixteen years employed in or for his or her establishment; one of said lists to be kept on file in the office of the employer, and one to be conspicuously posted in each of the several departments in or for which minors are employed. Said employment certificate, when issued, shall be the property of the minor named therein, who shall be entitled to a surrender of said certificate to him or her by the employer whenever said minor shall leave the service of any employer holding said certificate. In case a minor, who is employed or permitted to work in or about or for any establishment or industry named in section one of this act, as being sixteen years of age or over, appears to the Chief of the Department of Mines or any mine inspector to be under the age of sixteen years said Chief of the Department of Mines or mine inspector shall make written demand that the employer of said minor shall procure and keep on file in the office of said establishment, subject to inspection, the same evidence that said minor is in fact sixteen years of age or over as is required to furnish any further evidence of the age of said minor. In case the evidence of age, for which demand is made, be not filed as hereinbefore required, within thirty days after said demand, the employer shall cease to employ the minor named in said demand or to permit said minor to work: Provided, however, That said employer, by thus ceasing to employ or permit said minor to work, shall not be relieved from any of the penalties provided in this act for the employment of a minor under the age of sixteen years without the filing for such minor of the employment certificate herein before required.

Since the creation of the Department of Labor and Industry in 1913 and prior to the Child Labor Act of 1915, the Industrial Board

of the Department has given considerable study to the Child Labor situation and conducted public hearings particularly regarding employment certificates and children in street trades. Since the enactment of the Child Labor Law of 1915 the Board has acted upon numerous petitions pertaining to the employment of minors, and after the required public hearings, has adopted thirty-eight rulings to date, each ruling having the effect of law as far as the enforcement is concerned by the Department of Labor and Industry. These rules are classified as follows:

1. GENERAL RULINGS.

- (1) All institutions of an educational or charitable nature where work is conducted for profit must conform to the Child Labor Law. (Rule M-18).
- (2) Employment certificate issued to mentally deficient children by the Department of Public Instruction shall be accepted by the Department of Labor and Industry. (Rule M-23).
- (3) Minors in bowling alleys of Y. M. C. A. or institutions of similar character are subject to the regulations of the Child Labor Law. (Rule M-23).
- (4) Proof of age certificate issued by the school district. (Rule M-34).
- (5) Prohibiting employment for more than six days a week. (Rule M-36).
- (6) Industrial Home Work. (Rule M-37).

2. SPECIFIC RULINGS FOR FEMALE MINORS.

- (1) No female minor shall operate a crane. (Rule M-12).
- (2) No female minor under eighteen shall act as a messenger, etc. (Rule M-29).

3. LIST OF PROHIBITED OCCUPATIONS.

- (a) No minor under sixteen years of age shall be employed in the following occupations:
 - (1) On machine tools in machine shops. (Rule M-16).
 - (2) In heating and passing rivets. (Rule M-25).
 - (3) On woodworking machinery. (Rule M-31).
 - (4) In coal dredges. (Rule M-38).
- (b) No minor under eighteen years of age shall be employed in the following occupations:
 - (1) Outside electrical wiring. (Rule M-2).
 - (2) Operating elevators. (Rule M-3).
 - (3) Acetylene and electric welding. (Rule M-4).
 - (4) Wire stitching machines. (Rule M-5).
 - (5) Testing electric meters. (Rule M-7).
 - (6) On emery wheels. (Rule M-8).

- (7) In and around blast furnaces. (Rule M-9).
- (8) In wholesale liquor houses, clubs, hotels, etc. (Rule M-11).
- (9) In steel mills in connection with roll tables, roll cars, greasers in rolling mills. (Rule M-14).
- (10) Where explosives are manufactured, handled or stored. (Rule M-27).
- (11) Tanning establishments. (Rule M-21).
- (12) As section hands. (Rule M-22).
- (13) In quarries. (Rule M-26).
- (14) Operating motion picture machines. (Rule M-30).
- (15) On inside electrical wiring (unless assisting trained electricians over twenty-one.) (Rule M-17).
- (16) Call boys for railroad companies. (Rule M-17).
- (17) Operating mixing machines in bakeries. (Rule M-33).
- (18) Operating single-acting punch presses. (Rule M-35).

4. LIST OF PERMISSIBLE OCCUPATIONS.

- (a) Minors between fourteen and sixteen years of age shall be permitted to engage in the following occupations:
 - (1) Packing and banding cigars. (Rule M-6).
 - (2) In establishments providing and maintaining part-time industrial schools, at occupations not prescribed as hazardous by Child Labor Act, provided that minors at all times are under the special supervision and instruction of competent foremen, and machinery is properly guarded. (Rule M-20).
 - (3) As apprentices in pattern shops. (Rule M-10).
- (b) Minors between the ages of *sixteen* and *eighteen* years shall be permitted to engage in the following occupations:
 - (1) Asistant to chemist in blast furnace laboratories, etc. (Rule M-19).
 - (2) On blue print machines. (Rule M-13).
 - (3) In steel mills, as messengers. (Rule M-15).
 - (4) In steel mills, test boys providing they do not take samples. (Rule M-15).
 - (5) In steel mills, as shippers. (Rule M-15).
 - (6) In steel mills, as door operators. (Rule M-15).
 - (7) In steel mills, as weighmasters. (Rule M-15).
 - (8) In steel mills, as water carriers. (Rule M-15).
 - (9) In steel mills, as soaking pit cover operators. (Rule M-15).
 - (10) In steel mills, as shear gauge boys. (Rule M-15).
 - (11) In steel mills, as transfer tables. (Rule M-15).
 - (12) Installing and removing electric light and power meters, and doing inside wiring (assisting trained electricians over twenty-one). (Rule M-17).

- (c) Minors under eighteen years of age shall be permitted in Industrial schools learning the operation of power driven machines under supervision. (Rule M-1).

The Bureau of Insepction, which is the field service of the Department of Labor and Industry has been as active in investigating violations of the Child Labor Act in so far as the volume of the work of the bureau would permit. Since 1919 it has been the policy of the department to encourage compliance with the law without the necessity of drastic action. This accounts for the small number of prosecutions as compared with the violations. The figures for the past three years are:

Year	Number of Violations.	Prosecutions.
1919	1022	265
1920	982	276
1921	902	135

It is our conviction that if the educational requirements of the Act of 1915 were placed under the absolute jurisdiction of the Department of Public Instruction and the stretly labor matters were given over to the Department of Labor and Industry a big step in better enforcement of the law would be made. The solution, from the standpoint of the Department of Labor and Industry, seems to be in promoting child labor legislation, not so much as a school attendance proposition but rather as a life-work matter.

Child Labor Statistics.

At the request of Secretary Fred J. Hartman of the State Industrial Board, the Bureau of Statistics and Information of the Department of Internal Affairs has furnished the following comparative table showing the number of minors (male and female) and the number of employes (all classes) in Pennsylvania industries from 1916 to 1921 inclusive.

Year	1916	1917	1918	1919	1920	1921
Males, -----	10,239	12,948	14,231	10,658	*11,225	6,178
Females, -----	9,089	9,974	10,963	10,669	*10,420	8,610
Total Minors, -----	19,328	22,922	25,194	21,327	*21,645	14,794
All Employes, -----	1,735,543	1,802,813	1,827,101	1,523,609	*1,614,009	1,270,509

* Exclusive of Public Service.

DEPARTMENTAL PARAGRAPHS

The exhibit of departmental activities which Commissioner Connelley took with him to Milford at the time of the labor conference with Governor-elect Pinchot is now erected in the Hearing Room of the department in Harrisburg. The exhibit tells the story in forms, photographs, posters and publications, of the work of the department in the administration of the laws that are now on the statute books. To those unfamiliar with the labyrinth of detail that is encountered daily by the various bureaus and boards, the exhibit is enlightening to say the least. To those who have made a study of this work it gives an understanding of what can be done in the light of what has been done with the present inadequate legislation.

The Commissioner of Labor of Virginia, Hon. John Hopkins Hall, Jr., conferred with Dr. Connelley during December on the arrangements for the convention of Governmental Labor Officials of the United States and Canada to be held in Richmond next May. Commissioner Hall is preparing for a typical tour of the industries of the South during the convention week and has provided for a reception by the Governor of the Commonwealth one evening during the stay in the southern capital. He talked over with Commissioner Connelley the practicability of a safety exhibit as part of the affair. Every assurance of cooperation in this and other parts of the program was given by Commissioner Connelley. By mutual agreement the plans for the Safety Exhibit were placed in the hands of Mr. John Spicer of the Department of Labor and Industry for fulfillment.

Reply to an article appearing in the Bucks County Medical Monthly, criticising a ruling of the Workmens' Compensation Board concerning medical fees of physicians attached to the staffs of hospitals treating injured employes, is given in a letter by Chairman Mackey to the editor of that publication. "The Compensation Board is the interpreter of the compensation laws passed by the legislature of Pennsylvania," says Mackey in his reply. "If the law is deficient and fails to do justice to certain doctors, it is not the fault of the compensation board. We are sworn officers to interpret the law in the light of precedent and legal knowledge. It is not a question of our own attitude at all; it is only what we are compelled to decide under the law as it has been given to us and in no degree represents our own thoughts or desires."

Fred J. Hartman, Secretary of the Industrial Board, made a survey recently of the York High School plan of apprenticeship training. The Board will shortly make recommendations along the line of apprenticeship as a school problem and a child labor problem. The York High School plan was thoroughly discussed at the last meeting of the Board. It was revealed that about 150 boys are trained for industry in this manner. They devote approximately 5,000 hours to shop work actually employed by the establishments in that vicinity. Part of the time they are in class and the other part in the plant. There are many interesting features about the plan, Mr. Hartman, said, some favorable and others unfavorable for its adaptation as a general apprenticeship scheme.

An accident resulting in blindness to a motion picture operator caused by the glare of the light has resulted in the formulation of a ruling by the Industrial Board amending the motion picture code. The Workmen's Compensation Bureau received the report of the accident upon which a claim for compensation was based and brought it to the attention of the Board. The ruling provides that "all motion picture projectors that are so constructed that the eyes of the projectionist are exposed to the glare of the crater image or 'spot' shall be provided with an approved eye shield." The ruling applies to all operators of theatrical machines but does not apply specifically to operators of educational machines.

The humorous side of life is often brought out at hearings before the compensation board and the referees particularly in requests of widows for commutation. A young girl from the colored community of Steelton asked the chairman of the board recently to give her a lump sum payment so that she could embrace the opportunity afforded to "travel about from place to place," as she stated in her petition. "Me and my girl friend in Chicago has decided that we'd like to see something of the country. That's what I wants this money for," she pleaded. "The compensation board does not grant commutations for traveling expenses no matter how edifying that travel may be," was the retort of the compensation chairman.

One of the referees recently reviewed a commutation case and he, being well advanced in the stages of bachelorhood, began his hearing with a degree of prejudice that, it is seen from his recommendation, melted as the attractiveness and the motives of the widow were revealed. "She is an intelligent, active young widow who seems to have found favor in the eyes of counsel for both claimant and defendant. The referee being a bachelor, 'sot' in his ways, was unmoved. We do, however, recommend granting of the prayer of the fair petitioner."

INDUSTRIAL BOARD

COMMISSIONER C. B. CONNELLEY, Chairman.

MRS. SAMUEL SEMPLE, JAMES C. CRONIN,

OTTO T. MALLERY, HARRY A. NYE,

FRED J. HARTMAN, Secretary.

HOME WORK RULINGS TO BE REVISED

The State Industrial Board has decided to revise and submit to public hearings its rulings on industrial home work in order to provide more effective means of enforcement.

The Industrial Home Work Act of 1897 will be invoked to place entire jurisdiction under the Department of Labor and Industry. Inability to meet with the situation by state and local health officials for enforcement of the sanitation provisions of the rulings made it necessary to find other means for carrying the provisions into effect.

It is possible that some more definite plan for covering the child labor provisions will be evolved. Under the present scheme the child labor act applies. This jurisdiction is vested in the school authorities and presupposes the extension of the factory to the home, a point disputed by manufacturers who see in it the question of compensation being involved.

Meanwhile, the present rulings will be enforced in accordance with the original intention to cover health, sanitation, child labor and hours of labor for women and children. Mrs. Samuel Semple heads the committee which will consider the revised draft.

The question of apprenticeship was brought up by the report of an investigation of the conditions of employment of boys between the ages of 15 and 17 who are attending the York High School. The investigation was made by Fred J. Hartman, secretary of the Board, and a tribute to the plan was given. The York High School has about 150 boys in attendance at this apprenticeship school. About 25 firms cooperate in giving them shop training. It involves a four year course, one year in study of equipment and three in shop. The question brought up before the Board was whether one of these students could operate an elevator during casual employment as part of his training. It was decided under Rule M-1 of the Board that such employment was permissible.

Otto T. Mallery was assigned to investigate reported condition of miners evicted from their temporary quarters in Fayette county. He will report at the January meeting of the Board.

SAFETY ORGANIZATION CODE.

The revised tentative draft of the Safety Organization Code has been received from the Pennsylvania Society of Safety Engineers to whom the code was referred for review and criticism. The code was widely published and distributed to the membership of the Society. All the criticisms received were considered by the Code Committee of the Society in drafting the Code in its present form.

The Industrial Board at its December 13, 1922 meeting passed the code in the form given below on first and second readings. Public hearings will be held on dates to be announced later.

Proposed Standard on Safety Organization.

**Safety
Organization.**

Rule 1. Every establishment shall organize and maintain an organization for the safety of its employees. The organization shall consist of a responsible person or persons who shall direct the work of the necessary committees and safety inspectors.

**Director of
Safety.**

(a) In each establishment there shall be a properly qualified person of the rank of manager or superintendent who shall devote all the time that is necessary to insure proper safety. The office of director of safety shall be permanent.

**Optical
Plans.**

(b) Each establishment is required to adopt either one of the following outlined plans for the general direction of the safety work; as many of these options as desired may be incorporated in the program

**Central
Safety
Committee.**

(b-1) A central safety committee may be organized in order to carry a uniform co-operative program of safety in every department. The size of this committee shall depend upon the number of departments in the establishment. A meeting of this committee shall be held at least once a month with the director of safety, or another suitable person delegated by the management, as a presiding officer. It shall be a permanent standing committee.

**Departmental
Safety
Committee.**

(b-2) In establishments requiring individual foremen departmental safety committees may be organized consisting of the foremen, the superintendent of the department as chairman and the safety director as secretary. It shall be the duty of this committee to transmit the administrative phase of safety work to the operative basis or to interpret safety theory into safety practice. The Committee shall meet at least monthly and shall be a permanent standing committee.

**The Workmen's
Committee.**

(b-3) An establishment may provide for a workmen's committee with a foreman, or workman, as chairman and the director of safety as an advisory member. The size of this committee shall depend upon the number of men employed under the foreman, but in no case shall be less than a committee of three. One member shall be familiar with the prevailing language of the majority of foreigners where such labor is employed. This shall be a rotating committee, each member serving for a period of six months, so as to give every man in the department the opportunity to become acquainted with safety methods. The Committee shall meet not less than once a month.

**Safety
Inspectors.**

(b-4) The functions of central, departmental and workmen's committees may be delegated to departmental safety inspectors, who, in conjunction with the director of safety, shall carry out the same character of safety activities as outlined for those committees.

Rule 2. Every establishment shall be inspected regularly at fixed intervals by properly qualified persons or by the safety committee or committees. A written report shall be made of each such inspection, setting forth the condition of the establishment or department with regard to safety and shall include recommendations for eliminating dangerous conditions. Where an establishment has a recognized method of inspection associated with its daily working operations, and has in effect a suitable plan for the forwarding of reports of observed dangerous conditions by the workmen, such continuous inspections shall serve in lieu of special inspections at fixed intervals as above set forth.

Safety
Inspection.

Reports of regular inspections or of the status of continuous workmen's inspections shall be filed in charge of the director of safety and shall be accessible to the duly authorized inspectors of the department.

Rule 3. Every establishment shall furnish and adopt means to keep the matter of safety always in the minds of the employees. This shall be a continuous effort the year around.

Safety
Education.

Suitably located bulletin boards shall be provided on which shall be posted:

- (a) Safety bulletins to be changed at reasonably frequent intervals.
- (b) Safety rules or standards.
- (c) Other information relating to current safety activities.

Sufficient numbers of the safety standards of the State Industrial Board shall be secured to supply all persons concerned.

Suitable records of accidents shall be kept by each establishment. Statistics shall be compiled monthly to show the trend of the number and kind of accidents. This data to be used to stimulate accident prevention activity. Establishments which do not maintain a regular system of accident records shall keep a record of all accidents by preserving duplicates of reports on the forms supplied by the Department of Labor and Industry.

BUREAU OF INSPECTION

JOHN H. WALKER, Chief.

CHILD LABOR AND WOMEN'S LAW ENFORCED

Rigorous enforcement of the child labor act and the women's law against violators in various parts of the state has been in progress for the past three months with the result that out of 123 prosecutions during October and November 98 were violations of these two statutes.

There were 51 prosecutions for violation of the woman's law and 47 for violation of the child labor law. Prosecutions in the latter class resulted in heavy fines imposed upon second and third offenders.

A summary of the Inspection Bureau for November shows 6 child labor and 9 woman's law prosecutions in the southeastern section (Philadelphia) and 9 child labor and 3 woman's law violators in the northeastern section (Scranton). In the western part of the state there were 6 child labor and 15 woman's law prosecutions while in the central part of the state there were only 2 child labor cases brought to court.

The report shows that prosecutions were instituted for the following reasons:

1. Employing minors under 16 after 8 P. M.
2. Employing minors between 14 and 16 without certificate.
3. Employing minors 7 days a week.
4. Employing female minors for more than 10 hours a day after 9 P. M.
5. Not posting schedule of hours and abstract of the law.

The violators of the woman's law who were prosecuted were found employing women in excess of 54 hours a week, or 10 hours a day or more than 6 days a week without a day of rest or allowing only a 30 minute lunch period instead of 45 minutes. Some of them failed to post a schedule and a copy of the law.

During the two months there were 25 prosecutions for violation of the various labor laws, including the fire and panic law, factory act, bakery act and the boiler code.

WORKMEN'S COMPENSATION BOARD

HARRY A. MACKEY, Chairman.

PAUL HOUCK

BENJAMIN JARRETT

CLIFFORD B. CONNELLEY, Commissioner.

LEE SOLOMON, Secretary.

Five test cases will be brought before the Workmens' Compensation Board in Philadelphia, February 7, 8 and 9, to determine the much mooted question of whether or not hernia constitutes an accident in the spirit of the compensation law. Four coal companies, namely, the Glen Alden Coal Company, the D. L. & W. Railroad Company, the Pennsylvania Coal Company and the Scranton Coal Company, are named as defendants. It is said that the cases were lumped to present a more convincing argument of the contention that hernia, in the majority of cases, is a natural development and not necessarily an accidental occurrence. Much will depend on the medical testimony and accordingly the best of the profession will be heard. The claimants in these cases who are seeking compensation are: Fred Greenburg, Minooka, Pa., Leo Buekeacich, Pringle Borough, Pa., Jake Bravi, Arehbald, Pa., John Sammon, Dunmore, Pa., and Anthony Gutowski, Nantieoke, Pa.

Petitions for commutation or lump sum payments were filed with the Bureau and referred to the Workmen's Compensation Board in 939 cases during the year ending December 30th, 1922. Of this total 594 covered disability cases and 345 were fatal cases. The Board granted 456 requests in disability cases, while 137 were refused; in fatal cases requests were granted in 235 cases, while 102 were refused. The total amount of these lump sum payments was \$427,462.41 in disability cases and \$201,015.83 in fatal cases, or a grand total of \$628,478.24. An analysis of these awards show that forty-eight per cent were granted in full, twenty-seven per cent in sums over \$500 and twenty-five per cent in sums under \$500. Twenty-six per cent of the disability and forty-six per cent of the fatal cases were for the purpose of paying mortgages and purchasing property; twelve per cent of the disability and twenty-six per cent of the fatal cases for the payment of debts; thirty per cent of the disability and six per cent of the fatal cases for the purpose of starting into business; six per cent of the disability and twelve per cent of the fatal cases for living expenses, and twenty-two per cent of the disability and eight per cent of the fatal cases for leaving the country; two per cent of the disability and two per cent of the fatal cases because of Federal Control; two per cent of the disabili-

ity cases were granted for the purpose of buying artificial appliances.

There were 624 appeals from decisions of Referees filed with the Board during the year. This covers orders of the Referees on original claim petitions, petitions for modification, termination or review of compensation agreements and awards. Hearings de novo were ordered in ninety-eight cases and in twenty-one cases the Board granted re-hearings to be heard by Referees. Other petitions acted upon were petitions for allowance of counsel fee, 24; petitions on agreed facts upon which hearings were held and awards or disallowance of compensation made, 13; miscellaneous petitions, 24.

Under the provisions of Section 307 of the Act as amended in 1919, the Board authorized the payment of compensation to persons other than a guardian or committee in 123 cases.

There were 134 appeals from decisions of the Workmen's Compensation Board to Common Pleas Courts of the State during the year.

The Workmen's Compensation Board has reversed the decision of Referee Gleason of District 16, granting compensation to Rhoda Harkins, a widow and her three children, of Philipsburg, on the ground that George Harkins, her husband, a miner, died of diphtheria and not of the injuries he sustained in the course of his employment.

The findings of the Board state "the cause of the decedent's death being in no way related to the accident, the claimant and children are therefore not entitled to compensation and compensation is therefore disallowed."

The widow was asked to produce witnesses to substantiate the case. The decision states "at the time we suggested to counsel for the claimant that as the record stood, we would have to disallow compensation as the claimant had not made out her case."

Harkins before his last illness was employed at the McClure & Tyson Company's Brown No. 1, mine, at Big Run, Pa., and on November 19, as he was running away after firing a shot he bumped his right knee against a mine wagon. The next day he complained of his leg hurting and he was treated for a laceration found on the knee-cap.

"It appears," the record disclosed, "that on Thanksgiving Day, November 25, 1920, the deceased went hunting and he was compelled to return home because his leg pained him, and on arriving home he fainted. He was not able to sleep, ran a high temperature, had chills and much pain.

"On December 3, Dr. Newcome was called to his home and found him with a high temperature, chills and fever and complaining of pain in his right hip. On December 6, the doctor diagnosed the condition as nasal diphtheria and called Dr. Gourley of Pnxsutawney who confirmed the diagnosis."

WORKMEN'S COMPENSATION BUREAU

WILLIAM H. HORNER, Director.

ANNUAL REPORT.

The Workmens' Compensation Bureau of the Department of Labor and Industry received 146,255 accident reports for the year ending December 30th, 1922, an increase of 6,058 reports compared with the year 1921, as shown by the annual report submitted to Commissioner C. B. Connelley by W. H. Horner, Director of the Bureau.

These 146,255 accidents reported during the year 1922 sub-divided show 732 fatal and 82,320 non-fatal cases reported by the Industrial group; 809 fatal and 35,804 non-fatal cases reported by the Mining industry, while the Public Service group was responsible for 349 fatal and 26,241 non-fatal accidents.

In 1921 the Industrial group reported 644 fatal and 66,315 non-fatal accidents. During the same year the Mining Industry reported 904 fatal accidents and 49,852 non-fatal accidents, while the Public Service group reported 376 fatal accidents and 22,106 non-fatal cases.

The total number of accidents reported to the Bureau since the Compensation Law became effective, January 1st, 1916, is 1,282,315.

The following table shows the number of accidents reported each year according to degree of disability:

<i>Year</i>	<i>Fatal</i>	<i>Compensable</i>	<i>Non-Compensable</i>	<i>Total</i>
1916	2,670	59,714	193,232	255,616
1917	3,072	81,769	143,039	227,880
1918	3,403	53,783	127,658	184,844
1919	2,569	38,942	111,033	152,544
1920	2,528	93,598	78,853	174,979
1921	1,924	82,387	55,886	140,197
1922	1,890	86,367	57,998	146,255
TOTALS	18,056	496,560	767,699	1,282,315

COMPENSABLE CASES.

The number of agreements for the payment of compensation approved during the year 1922 was 62,793, including 1565 fatal and 1173 permanent disability cases. The compensation incurred amounts to \$10,853,344, sub-divided as follows: Fatal cases, \$5,062,490; Permanent disability cases, \$2,226,364; Temporary disability cases \$3,564,490.

Since January 1st, 1916 agreements for the payment of compensation were approved in 449,081 cases, incurring a compensation liability of \$69,892,995. This grand total is distributed as follows: Fatal cases \$37,246,280; Permanent disability cases, \$12,458,739; Temporary disability cases, \$20,187,976. In fatal and permanent disability cases the total amount of compensation provided by the agreements and awards on file in the Workmen's Compensation Bureau is \$49,705,019. Of this amount \$20,201,793 has been paid, leaving outstanding obligations amounting to \$29,503,226, these payments to be distributed over a number of years.

FATAL COMPENSABLE CASES.

The following table shows the number of fatal compensable cases for each year and the amount of compensation incurred by agreements and awards. This table also shows the number of fatal cases where there was no dependency and the amount paid toward defraying the expense of the last sickness and burial:

<i>Year</i>	<i>Agreements and Awards</i>	<i>Compensation Incurred</i>	<i>Average Compensation Per Case</i>
1916	1304	\$4,078,796	\$3,127.91
1917	1323	4,127,931	3,113.07
1918	2041	6,803,528	3,333.43
1919	1794	6,361,191	3,545.81
1920	1643	5,854,535	3,564.05
1921	1338	4,658,392	3,481.61
1922	1444	5,050,395	3,497.50
TOTAL	10,887	\$36,934,768	\$3,392.56
FATAL CASES (No dependency)	3180	\$311,512	\$97.96
GRAND TOTAL	14,067	\$37,246,280	\$2,647.78

PERMANENT DISABILITY CASES—LOSS OF MEMBERS.

The following series of tables shows the number of agreements and awards and the amount of compensation incurred in permanent disability and temporary disability cases:

Eyes

<i>Year</i>	<i>Agreements and Awards</i>	<i>Compensation Incurred</i>
1916	357	\$349,896
1917	379	405,097
1918	683	840,430
1919	651	828,432
1920	664	972,510
1921	653	1,005,414
1922	527	807,791
TOTALS	3,905	\$5,209,570

There were 99 cases which resulted in the loss of both eyes. 9 in 1916; 2 in 1917; 15 in 1918; 18 in 1919; 24 in 1920; 17 in 1921, and 14 in 1922. The average compensation awarded for each of the 3,905 cases was \$1,334.

Hands

<i>Year</i>	<i>Agreements and Awards</i>	<i>Compensation Incurred</i>
1916	101	\$133,297
1917	144	198,840
1918	261	400,280
1919	296	467,035
1920	299	549,729
1921	284	550,177
1922	274	548,366
TOTALS	1,649	\$2,847,724

Both hands were lost in 12 cases. 2 in 1916; 1 in 1917; 1 in 1918; 1 in 1919; 2 in 1920, and 5 in 1922. The average compensation awarded for each of the 1,649 cases was \$1,727.

Arms

<i>Year</i>	<i>Agreements and Awards</i>	<i>Compensation Incurred</i>
1916	58	\$ 89,465
1917	48	82,658
1918	78	144,017
1919	68	139,625
1920	85	182,809
1921	98	229,705
1922	82	201,672
TOTALS	517	\$1,069,951

One double arm loss occurred in 1922.

The average compensation awarded for each of the 517 cases was \$2,070.

Feet

<i>Year</i>	<i>Agreements and Awards</i>	<i>Compensation Incurred</i>
1916	44	\$ 54,878
1917	62	85,109
1918	154	215,599
1919	160	229,436
1920	145	234,701
1921	154	256,633
1922	140	256,227
TOTALS	859	\$1,332,583

Both feet were lost in 15 cases. 2 in 1918; 5 in 1919; 1 in 1920; 1 in 1921, and 6 in 1922. The average amount of compensation awarded for each of the 859 cases was \$1,551.

Legs

<i>Year</i>	<i>Agreements and Awards</i>	<i>Compensation Incurred</i>
1916	86	\$137,983
1917	51	83,402
1918	106	209,853
1919	90	177,072
1920	100	200,777
1921	101	239,002
1922	116	278,622
TOTALS	650	\$1,326,691

In 15 cases both legs were lost. 2 in 1916; 2 in 1917; 5 in 1918; 1 in 1919, 2 in 1921 and 3 in 1922. An average of \$2,041 was awarded for each of the 650 cases.

MISCELLANEOUS PERMANENT TOTAL DISABILITY CASES.

The above classification includes broken backs and other permanent total disability cases not specifically mentioned in the Compensation Act.

<i>Year</i>	<i>Agreements and Awards</i>	<i>Compensation Incurred</i>
1917	6	\$ 20,146
1918	29	110,185
1919	21	84,000
1920	35	141,311
1921	43	182,892
1922	34	133,686
TOTALS	168	\$672,220

The average compensation incurred for each of the 168 miscellaneous permanent disability cases was \$4,001.

TEMPORARY DISABILITY CASES.

This classification includes all compensable cases where the duration of payments is not definite, compensation to be paid until disability terminates, however, within the limitations of the Workmens' Compensation Law.

<i>Year</i>	<i>Agreements and Awards</i>	<i>Compensation Paid</i>
1916	68,920	2,652,136
1917	47,441	1,410,778
1918	66,012	2,877,084
1919	53,323	2,623,231
1920	68,566	3,455,096
1921	62,949	3,615,161
1922	60,055	3,564,490
TOTALS	427,266	\$20,187,976

The average compensation paid for each of the 427,266 temporary disability cases was \$47.

EMPLOYMENT BUREAU

ROBERT J. PETERS, Director.

Skilled Men Wanted.

Industrial activity in 1923 is handicapped by a critical shortage of workers trained in mechanical lines, according to advices from the principal industrial centers of Pennsylvania.

There is apparently no relief for the scarcity of skilled labor at the present time with the consequence that not more than 75 per cent production can be attained.

In spite of the fact that greater attention is being paid to apprenticeship training, the shortage of well trained workers must continue for several years until the folly of the past few years' neglect of this problem has been overcome, according to Commissioner Connelley.

The 1922 report of the Workmen's Compensation Bureau shows in cold figures the result of inexperienced men working at skilled trades in the number of industrial accidents which increased 15 per cent in those resulting in death, and 25 per cent in the non-fatal class.

A survey of the situation throughout the State is shown in the report of the Employment Bureau for January 1 as follows:

Erie—Demand for practically all classes of skilled workers. Increased demand for all classes of workmen shortly after the first of the year.

Harrisburg—Supply been very good in nearly every line except templet and pattern makers. An acute shortage in these two occupations which cannot be filled. Varying demand for moulders, car repairmen, chippers, machinists, etc.

New Kensington—Need almost all kinds of help for mills here, including heaters, doublers, roughers, rollers, etc. Semi-skilled labor in greatest demand. Demand for moulders, machinists, and machine help of at least six months' experience, boiler makers and blacksmiths.

Chester—Every class of mechanic known in the ship-building industry, needed.

Philadelphia—(Women) Great shortage of machine workers and girls for assembling, inspecting, etc. in factories.

Pittsburgh—Demand exceeds expectation for metal and machinery workers. Demand for thoroughly experienced wood workers continues in excess of the limited local supply.

Reading--Greatest percentage of calls from the various foundries have been for well-trained machinists, vice and bench moulders, lead experts, brass polishers, etc.

The January 1st report indicates there is still some unemployment and industrial disputes are responsible for 36,675 on strike; the number of voluntarily unemployed 22,333.

Mills and factories, railroads, and building operations continue to keep competent labor at a premium in Pennsylvania, according to reports from all parts of the State to the Department of Labor and Industry.

Demand for workers in the steel industry is as great today as it has been at any time during the shortage.

Railroads are experiencing considerable difficulty in acquiring men to help move the heavy freight traffic. Reports show the transportation situation in this state the most prosperous on record.

Building projects are going ahead, but for the most part efforts are being made to complete constructions that are now under way before the severe winter handicaps these operations, and skilled building tradesmen are still in demand.

Shortage of common labor in the Pittsburgh district has been slightly relieved by the influx from other sections of the state, but in Scranton, where there is a surplus of common labor, there is a disinclination to leave that section.

Little change is noted in the mining situation which is somewhat complicated in the hard coal region by the transportation situation, although reports show the railroads are doing their utmost to move coal as fast as it is mined. In the bituminous region there is considerable difficulty reported in obtaining enough cars to move the coal on hand, although the railroads are bending every effort to supply the demand for rolling stock.



LABOR AND INDUSTRY

Monthly Bulletin

DEPARTMENT OF LABOR AND INDUSTRY
COMMONWEALTH OF PENNSYLVANIA

JOHN H. WALKER, Acting Commissioner



FEBRUARY and MARCH, 1923.

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Questionnaire.

Check those activities in the following list which exist in your plant. This list is arranged alphabetically for convenience in compiling the information.

1. Americanization
2. Athletics: (organized) baseball.....bowling.....
3. Cafeteria or restaurant
4. Centralized hiring
5. Club House
6. Co-operative Store
7. Foremen's Clubs or meetings
8. Housing of Employees
9. LibraryNo. of Volumes
10. Medical Department: Doctor.....Nurses.....Physi-
cal Examination on entrance.....Follow up.....
11. Music, Band.....Community Singing.....
12. Plant paper or Magazine.....How many issued
per year
13. Promotion System
14. Rest Periods
15. Rest Rooms
16. Safety Committee
17. Suggestion System
18. Thrift: Mutual Benefit & sick relief.....Bldg. & Loan.....
Co-operation with banks.....Thrift clubs.....
Sale of Co. stock.....Credit union or Loan plan.....
19. Training classes Apprentices.....Workers.....
Foremen
20. Visiting of absentees
21. Shop Committee

Please give the name and official position of the person
at present in charge of employment and personnel work:

Signed

Official Position

Name of Firm

Address

No. of employees: Men.....Women.....

LABOR AND INDUSTRY

Monthly Bulletin

of the

Department of Labor and Industry

COMMONWEALTH OF PENNSYLVANIA

S. P. Hollingsworth, Editor.

Associate Editors

Fred J. Hartman Robert J. Peters Wm. H. Horner S. S. Riddle

Industrial Board	Bureau of Inspection	Division of Hygiene and Engineering
Compensation Board	Workmen's Compensation Bureau	Rehabilitation Bureau,
Bureau of Mediation and Arbitration		Bureau of Employment.

Vol. II.

HARRISBURG, PA., FEBRUARY, 1923.

No. 2

WHAT ABOUT YOUR PERSONNEL DEPARTMENT?

On the opposite page is a questionnaire on personnel work. It was prepared by the Advisory Council on Women and Children in Industry. It is regarded as one of the most constructive suggestions that has been brought to the attention of the Department of Labor and Industry.

After taking up the matter of a personnel survey in Pennsylvania with the Industrial Board, the Women's Council formed a committee to draft a suitable questionnaire. It was approved at the January meeting of the Board.

The management of every industrial plant receiving this publication is asked to give careful attention to this questionnaire and, if it meets with approval, to answer the questions and return to the secretary of the Industrial Board.

This is the first survey of such a character conducted by the Department of Labor and Industry. The information will be a most valuable asset as a guide to better industrial relations. The intention is to compile a directory of personnel departments in this state which will be available to employers as well as the Department of Labor and Industry.

Those industrial plants within reach of this bulletin therefore are asked to cooperate in making it a success. Upon the harvest of re-

plies will depend the merit of the proposition. In that case, it will be extended further throughout the state by means of the new industrial directory soon to be issued by the Department of Internal Affairs. In other words, this is an experiment in which all employers are taking an active part.

An examination of the 21 questions will reveal the simplicity of form, and the precise manner in which the questionnaire was gotten up. It will also be apparent how important this data will be in developing high industrial standards for Pennsylvania. The very least that the Industrial Board expects is that the plants with high standards already in force will come out and assert themselves.

PRODUCTION DEPENDS ON LABOR SUPPLY.

The return of prosperity to Pennsylvania in 1923 depends upon labor. Every industrial center reports the need for labor of every description from common labor to highly skilled mechanics.

Director Robert J. Peters of the Employment Bureau has been working on the problem for several months in cooperation with the Department of Labor at Washington, both with respect to immigration and turnover from other states.

"The immigration authorities in New York are unable to offer any encouragement so far as foreign labor is concerned," he said. "The quota from the Mediterranean countries is exhausted up to July 1st of this year, and the only quota which is not reached is that from the Scandinavian countries, but they are not coming here from that quarter."

The only relief from the skilled labor shortage as well as common labor at this time, is in the possibility of turnover developing in some quarters. According to records of the U. S. Employment Service, there is a slight surplus of skilled labor in Ohio, but it is unlikely that Ohio will release this temporary surplus.

The same shortages that exist in Pennsylvania are found in neighboring states of New York, New Jersey, Delaware and Maryland. The policy, however, in this state, at least, is to keep the present labor supply within the state. Director Peters asserts it is hard to prevent employment agents from other states under Pennsylvania license coming here for their labor supply. Philadelphia is a rich field for outside agents, because that city is the best labor market in the country, due to diversity of occupations there, and the large numbers employed.

Efforts are being put forth by state employment officials to stabilize the labor situation in Pennsylvania through clearance from cities like Scranton, where there is a surplus of common labor to Johnstown, where there is a slight shortage, or in semi-skilled labor from Erie and Altoona to the western part of the State where the common labor and killed labor shortages exist.

In some ways the problem of moving the labor about has its difficulties. In the case of highly paid mechanics who have established their families in any one place, they are reluctant to leave, although temporarily out of work.

The shortage of transportation facilities is reported to be responsible for impeded production in the state. Inability to get cars is holding up production because the product cannot be shipped. Congestion on the railroads retards production, it is explained, because fuel and raw materials can not be obtained.

The fact that these conditions are stated by railroad officials to be only temporary and the fact that the labor situation is more or less permanent, makes that factor of greater importance in relieving the present difficulty. It has been estimated that the shortage of trained workers will continue for at least ten years, if the present rate of production lasts, due to war conditions, when training was neglected. The common labor shortage, it is stated, can be relieved if the immigration quota is raised in proportion to the needs for such labor.

A classification of fatal accidents in industry for two months from November 15, 1922 to January 15, 1923 reported by the Workmen's Compensation Bureau has been made by the Industrial Board as they relate to Safety Standards now enforced or proposed. The largest number of fatalities in any activity covered by code results from scaffold accidents, the records show. There were 20 fatalities from scaffold accidents during the two months. Blast and electric furnace operations, not covered by code were responsible for 13 fatalities, while 86 fatal accidents were classed miscellaneous. During the two months not one industry named was without accidents that resulted in death to one or more workers. The list is as follows:

Safety Standards and Facilities from November 15 to January 15.

Electric Code,	3
Polishing and Grinding,	2
Building,	4
Ladder,	5
Compressed Air,	1
Woodworking,	3
Elevator,	13
Explosives,	9
Quarry,	5
Dyeing and Finishing,	1
Crane,	16
Boiler,	2
Window Cleaning,	2
Laundry,	1
Stationary Engines,	3
Mechanical Power Transmission,	3
Safety Organization,	10
Scaffolds,	20
Laundries,	1
Plant Railways,	7
Machine Tools,	1

Proposed Codes.

Furnace (Blast & Electric),	13
Logging and Lumbering,	4
Iron and Steel Mills,	3
Oil and Gas,	1
Anthrax,	1
Miscellaneous,	86
Total fatalities,	220

INDUSTRIAL BOARD

JOHN H. WALKER, Chairman.

MRS. SAMUEL SEMPLE, JAMES C. CRONIN,

OTTO T. MALLERY, HARRY A. NYE,

FRED J. HARTMAN, Secretary.

REPORT ON CONDITIONS AT HUNTINGDON REFORMATORY.

The following letter from the secretary of the Industrial Board to Dr. Ellen C. Potter, Commissioner of the Department of Public Welfare, sets forth the details of an investigation made by a member of the Board into conditions at the Huntingdon Reformatory, notably with respect to the Guarding of machinery in the reformatory workshops. Dr. Potter has replied to this letter stating that the matter is being handled with the view to some action being taken.

My dear Dr. Potter:

The attention of the Industrial Board, through the Bureau of Inspection, Department of Labor and Industry was called to the necessity for guarding machinery in workshops of the Huntingdon Reformatory, Huntingdon, Pa. In order to secure definite data on the subject a Special Committee was appointed consisting of Mr. James C. Cronin, Chairman of the Safety Standards Committee of the Industrial Board, Mr. John H. Walker, Chief Inspector, Mr. Frank A. Moore, Inspector and Mr. Robinson, official photographer of the Department, to make an investigation, which investigation was made December 21st, 1922. The report submitted by Mr. Cronin to the Industrial Board on January 17th, 1923 is as follows:

That conditions were deplorable. That the boys were worked continuously about eight hours per day under the supervision of a guard whose word was law, he being in a position to over-rule any order other than a mechanical one, given by the plant manager and foreman. The boys, in the operating of these machines endangered their hands with each operation, due to removing the number stamps after the pressing of two tags. The shop manager admitted without any qualification of the loss by inmates of parts of hands several times since the erection of the machines; that two boys had lately been maimed, one still being in the hospital upon the date of our visit. He argued that all accidents occurred in what they called the 'repeat' operation, this operation consisting of the number being inserted and the first tag printed with that number after which the second tag is stamped with the same number. The boys are never

caught in changing the numbers but in getting the second tag in to be stamped by the same number, which is the 'repeat' operation. This is due to their desire to pull the first tag out and get the second one in without allowing the treadle to trip.

"I feel that the Industrial Board should bring this information to the attention of the Department of Public Welfare and the legislative advisers of the new Governor so that these boys might be compensated in some way for the loss of their hands. It does not seem fair to take away a boy's liberty, put him in a penal institution, which this institution is, injure him and his earning capacity for life and send him out uncompensated when he reaches the end of his term. The mechanical device that will prevent the crushing of any more hands was approved by the Chief Factory Inspector as one of the best he had ever seen. The plant manager and foreman agreed that within two weeks every machine in the plant would be so equipped. The Chief Factory Inspector arranged with one of his own inspectors to check up at the end of two weeks to see whether or not these devices are installed, also expressed himself as being desirous of stopping the operation of the machines at the expiration of that time if the said devices have not been installed."

It was voted to refer this data to the Department of Public Welfare with the offer of full co-operation on the part of the Industrial Board in case any further steps are to be taken.

Yours very truly,

FRED J. HARTMAN,
Secretary, Industrial Board.

Mrs. Samuel Semple, member of the Industrial Board and Dr. Elizabeth Bricker, Division of Hygiene and Engineering, represented the Department of Labor and Industry at the Women's Industrial Conference, at Washington, called by the Bureau of Women of the Department of Labor, held January 11, 12 and 13. The conference brought together representatives from 35 states and the District of Columbia, and from all sorts of educational, welfare and religious organizations as well as state departments of labor, their report states. "It was interesting to note," declares Mrs. Semple in her report to the Board, "that the speakers of the conference were divided almost equally between those academically trained, and those who had received their training in the hard school of experience."

Four recommendations for eliminating the traffic in second hand materials in upholstery have been offered to the Industrial Board by the committee of ten experts who met with Dr. E. B. Joachim, of the Division of Hygiene and Engineering, who made a state wide investigation and report on this condition recently. These experts came from Philadelphia, Pittsburgh and Scranton to consider this problem and held their meeting January 16, at the Department of Labor and Industry headquarters in Harrisburg.

BUREAU OF INSPECTION.

JOHN H. WALKER, Chief

1922 REPORTS

The record number of 112,746 inspections was made during 1922, it is shown in the annual summary of the Division of Records. Of this number 88,340 were regular inspections made in accordance with the plan of the block system. The balance of 24,406 constituted special inspections.

A total of 8,817 violations is reported for the year while prosecutions numbered 284.

Orders numbered 6,431 and compliances 7,362. The number of visits totalled 16,924, it is shown in the report.

Uncompleted orders on hand January 1, 1923 total 2,800, of which number 153 are from 1920, and 474 from 1921, while orders carried over from last year total 2,163.

Prosecutions during the month of December number 39, and of these 22 were violations of the Child Labor law, 10 violations of the woman's law and 6 violations of the fire and panic act. Only one prosecution resulted from violation of the factory act, which covers guarding of machinery.

Boiler inspections during the year 1922 total 40,557. Of this number 27,460 were internal and 13,097 external inspections. A total of 3,737 Pennsylvania Standard boilers were built last year, according to the records of the Boiler Division. During the year 3,823 operating certificates were issued. A total of 1,225 dangerous defects were found and 14,165 ordinary defects located. Only 22 boilers were condemned last year but 158 were suspended. There were 160 special hydrostatic tests made on H. R. T. Lap Seam boilers during 1922.

During the month of December last 552 elevator inspection reports were received and checked. These reports represented the activities of the approved elevator inspectors including the departmental inspectors. A total of 196 dangerous defects were found and 225 ordinary defects noted.

The Division of Motion Pictures reports a total of 2,295 licenses issued during the year 1922. Of this number 1,867 were renewals from 1921, while 421 were licenses issued by examination or re-examination, during the year. All but seven of the licenses were for oper-

ation of theatrical motion picture machines. These seven were for operation of non-theatrical machines. Six buildings were approved last month for exhibiting non-theatrical films.

The Buildings division reports 144 plans received last month, 109 of which were new and 35 revised. Plans approved during December total 80, half of which were for erection of fire escapes, and 26 for buildings.

The following table shows a comparison of fatal accidents received by the Division of Accident Investigation for the years 1921 and 1922 showing the percentage of increase or decrease according to classification, whether industrial, public service or mines:

Month	1921				1922				
	Ind	PS	Mines	Total	Ind	PS	Mines	Total	%
January, -----	62	34	100	196	51	24	77	152	-22.4
February, -----	54	32	69	155	34	34	103	171	10.32
March, -----	68	48	56	172	53	32	87	172	00.0
April, -----	43	26	64	133	47	19	38	104	-21.7
May, -----	46	32	88	166	64	22	30	116	-30.1
June, -----	51	19	78	148	71	34	35	140	-05.4
July, -----	48	30	82	160	68	22	34	124	-22.5
August, -----	52	31	62	145	70	24	23	117	-19.8
September, -----	65	33	66	164	55	29	54	138	-15.8
October, -----	63	37	86	186	84	44	73	201	07.4
November, -----	47	19	83	154	66	28	166	260	68.1
December, -----	45	35	65	145	69	37	89	195	34.4
	644	376	904	1,924	732	349	809	1,890	-1.74

INDUSTRIALS

	1921	1922	%
January, -----	62	51	-17.7
February, -----	54	34	-37.7
March, -----	68	53	-22.0
April, -----	43	47	9.3
May, -----	46	64	39.1
June, -----	51	71	39.2
July, -----	48	68	41.5
August, -----	52	70	34.6
September, -----	65	55	-15.3
October, -----	63	84	33.3
November, -----	47	66	40.4
December, -----	45	69	53.3
	644	732	12.1

WORKMEN'S COMPENSATION BOARD

PAUL W. HOUCK, Chairman.

BENJAMIN JARRETT

LEE SOLOMON, Secretary.

CONTESTED CASES.

The number of claim petitions filed each year and assigned to Referees since the Compensation Law became effective is shown in the following table, also the disposition made of these cases:

Year.	Assigned.	Award.	Disallowed	Dismissed	Withdrawn.
1916	1,728	479	220	662	44
1917	2,964	799	650	993	228
1918	2,216	741	492	657	141
1919	2,204	767	506	578	181
1920	2,306	769	428	688	180
1921	2,408	799	435	801	157
1922	2,388	886	539	809	157
Totals,	16,214	5,240	3,270	5,188	1,088

Petitions for modification, review, termination and reinstatement of compensation agreements filed with the Bureau and assigned to Referees for disposition each year are shown in the following table:

Year.	Assigned.	Granted	Refused
1916-17	119	23	96
1918	1,193	614	494
1919	1,446	779	645
1920	1,398	778	569
1921	2,030	1,003	815
1922	2,077	1,154	894
Totals,	8,263	4,351	3,513

An example of the difficulties encountered by referees under the compensation system in Pennsylvania in determining cases of injured railroad employes, whose status under the act is debatable, is shown in the case of Charles F. Blace of Mifflintown versus the Pennsylvania Railroad Company in which Referee Chester W. Cummings made an award for the maximum amount of compensation.

Blace, a brakeman, was injured nearly two years ago in shifting cars consigned in intrastate commerce, although this fact had to be determined. The accident was caused by his being struck by a warehouse which knocked him off the car, and both of his legs were run over, necessitating amputation.

The company offered to settle under the terms of the act, but the employe refused. An explanation of the proceedings has been given for the sake of enlightenment of the public by Referee Cummings as follows:

This case is peculiar in this respect. A claim was entered by the injured employe in the Federal Courts, alleging that he was engaged in interstate commerce. The Pennsylvania Railroad Company at the time of the injury offered him a settlement in accordance with the Compensation Act, which he refused to accept. At a later date, just prior to the barring of the claim by statute, he filed a claim petition with the Workmen's Compensation Bureau.

The Pennsylvania Railroad Company, by agreement with the Workmen's Compensation Board, never takes advantage of the interstate commerce employment in the settlement of claims due to injuries, paying full compensation as provided in the act and taking a release for the same under both the Federal and State law.

At the hearing held in this matter, the solicitor for the railroad company took the position that as the claimant had alleged in one action that he was in interstate commerce and in the other action that he was in intrastate commerce, it was up to him to show the character of his employment at the time of the injury. At this hearing the claimant knew nothing of the character of his employment and the railroad company stood pat and offered no testimony. Under these circumstances, the Referee, deeming it necessary to make an investigation of the facts, issued a subpoena upon the officers and directors of the defendant company, ordering the production of the books and records and such witnesses as were necessary to prove the character of the employment. To this procedure, counsel for the railroad company objected. This objection was overruled and an exception noted for the defendant.

You will observe that after taking all the testimony, we have found that at the time of the injury the man was engaged in intrastate commerce and have awarded compensation accordingly.

WORKMEN'S COMPENSATION BUREAU

WILLIAM H. HORNER, Director.

REPORT FOR 1922 SHOWS ADJUSTMENT RECORD.

The number of cases handled by the adjustment division during the year 1922 shows a decided increase as compared with the year 1921. The division consists of a field force of eight men, with headquarters in Philadelphia, Altoona, Scranton-Wilkes-Barre and Pittsburgh, and a Chief Adjuster located in the Harrisburg office. Because of the small number of men available for this work, it necessarily follows that each Adjuster or Investigator is required to cover considerable territory. The services of these Adjusters have been the means of settling many disputed cases, which otherwise would have resulted in litigation and legal expense to employers and employees. The number of claims filed in disputed cases and assigned to Referees could be materially reduced if this force were increased. The following summary, compiled by the Chief Adjuster, will give an idea of the work performed by this division during the past year:

Compensation agreements secured and approved	1626
Non-compensable cases adjusted—time lost less than ten days and only medical expenses involved	218
Interstate commerce cases investigated—railroad fatal accidents, settlement made under the Federal Liability Act, cases not covered by the Act	154
No dependents—fatal cases investigated and closed, where there was no dependency within the meaning of the Act, only part payment of last sickness and burial expenses involved to the amount of one hundred dollars each, payments made	259
Petitions filed in order to determine merits of cases before Referees in disputed claims	521
Commutation petitions investigated for the Board	379
Subrogation cases investigated—accidents where the third party was responsible and amounts received by claimants were equivalent to or in excess of amounts of compensation payable under the Act	62
Barred by Statute of Limitations—cases investigated where injured parties refused to sign compensation agreements, owing to small amount of compensation involved, claims now barred by Statute of Limitations	24
Other investigations made in miscellaneous cases, as follows, ..	560
Compensation cases reopened and additional compensation paid.	
Assistance rendered in appointment of guardians for minor dependents.	

Represented claimants at hearings before Referees.

Transportation secured and arrangements made in commuted cases for foreigners who returned to Europe.

Cases investigated where employer paid full wage in lieu of compensation, employer reimbursed by insurance company in the amount of compensation payable and agreements executed.

Cases in which claimants were assisted in collecting compensation where awards were made by Referees, employers not covered by compensation insurance at time of accident.

Fatal cases investigated where the question of alien dependency is involved, cases referred to proper Consular representatives in this Country.

Cases on hand January 1st, 1922	105
Cases assigned during year 1922	3857
Cases on hand January 1st, 1923	179
Total number of cases investigated and adjusted in 1922	3803

State Compensation Cases.

The Workmen's Compensation Bureau also administers the Act in all cases where state employes are injured during the course of their employment. Compensation as well as bills for medical, surgical and hospital expenses, within the limitations of the Act, are paid by requisition made on the Auditor General by the Commissioner of the Department of Labor and Industry. Requisitions for such payments are only made after the necessary agreements are properly executed and bills for medical, surgical and hospital expenses are approved by the Department in which the injured was employed at the time of the Accident. Payments are made by check issued by the State Treasury. The Legislature in 1921 made an appropriation of \$100,000 to the Bureau for this purpose, covering the two-year period ending June 1st, 1923. The following statement shows the total amount expended from June 1st, 1921 to January 1st, 1923:

Medical, surgical and hospital expenses,	\$22,591.90
Compensation paid in fatal cases,	13,856.30
Compensation paid in Permanent Disability cases,	16,919.38
Compensation paid in Temporary Disability cases,	22,173.37
Administration,	2,050.38
Total Expenditures,	77,591.33
Balance in fund January 1st, 1923,	22,408.67

Division of Exemption and Insurance.

This division has recommended the granting of 514 applications for the privilege of self-insurance during the year 1922. It is felt that this division has stood a thorough test in the sound principles established in granting these exemptions during the past twelve months of industrial depression.

The importance of this work is only realized when we consider that in normal times the self-insured companies have two-thirds of the accidents of the State. No employe in Pennsylvania has ever suffered the loss of any or all of his compensation due to the failure of a self-insurer to comply with the provisions set forth in his application for exemption.

In an effort to reduce the number of rejections of the Compensation Act to a minimum, a campaign was instigated which resulted in the reduction of these rejections to seventy-five companies, the majority of which are employers of one person, or are in extremely non-hazardous industries. The work during this campaign was aided particularly by the 1921 amendment to Section 305 of the Workmen's Compensation Act, providing a penalty of \$1.00 per diem during the continued failure to comply with this Section.

To date 2,196 notices have been filed against employers for failure to comply with the Compensation Act. Our experience in this work to date has shown that if an employer once carries compensation insurance he rarely employs any workingmen without properly protecting them. Most violations of the Act are found among employers who never carried compensation insurance.

The Bureau has made an exhaustive study of the promptness with which insurance carriers and self-insurers submit for approval agreements for the payment of compensation. As the result of a similar study in 1920, a campaign was instituted by most companies to reduce the period elapsing between the date of accident and the submissions of their agreement for approval. The 1922 survey is gratifying to the extent that many companies have reduced their records to almost half the previous period. Much can still be accomplished along this line.

The records of the individual companies were sent to the State Workmen's Insurance Fund, every insurance company and ninety-two of the largest self-insurers.

The most disastrous accident during 1922 occurred in the coal mines near Spangler, Cambria county, when 77 men were killed outright or died later as the result of their injuries. A conservative estimate of the amount of compensation involved, including the expense of the last sickness and burial, is \$225,000. Many of the fatal victims were single men. The records to date in compensable cases show 31 widows, 10 mothers, 9 fathers and 98 children under sixteen years of age, 53 boys and 45 girls who will benefit under the terms of the agreements approved by the Board.

BUREAU OF REHABILITATION.

S. S. RIDDLE, Chief.

REHABILITATION RECORDS.

Three thousand and twenty-three persons reported as disabled and residing in every one of the sixty-seven counties of Pennsylvania have been offered the services of the Bureau of Rehabilitation to January 1, 1923, the close of the third year of field work by the Bureau.

One thousand and fourteen such disabled persons have been returned to suitable occupational tasks, many of whom received periods of school training, as well as training on the job. The Bureau, by direct payments from its appropriation, aided in the purchase of 253 artificial appliances as arms, legs, hands, feet and body braces to enable disabled registrants to return to suitable occupational tasks and become self supporting.

Pennsylvania leads the thirty-one States cooperating with the Federal Board for Vocational Education in numbers of disabled persons rehabilitated during the Federal fiscal year ending June 30, 1922, according to the Sixth Annual Report of the Federal Board for Vocational Education. There were 1,890 disabled persons rehabilitated in all the States of whom 406 were rehabilitated by Pennsylvania.

School and Occupational History of Persons Registered with Bureau.

		Age Group					In U. S.	In For- eign Coun- tries	Labor- er	Skilled or Semi- Skilled
		Under 21	21-30	31-40	41-50	Over 50				
	Years in school									
219	Never attended		24	64	79	52	33	186	146	73
53	1 year	1	11	14	11	14	16	37	41	12
90	2 years	2	13	26	24	27	46	44	43	42
140	3 years	8	37	40	24	31	69	71	73	67
143	4 years	3	37	42	39	27	80	68	63	85
210	5 years	21	47	53	45	45	139	71	87	123
263	6 years	27	55	73	55	52	177	86	100	163
231	7 years	43	93	65	37	33	223	58	87	194
382	8 years	76	146	65	43	50	326	56	112	270
162	9 years	44	46	32	17	23	138	24	48	114
168	10 years	29	44	40	32	23	151	117	34	134
163	Over 10 years	19	63	30	26	25	147	16	25	138
2,279		273	616	544	434	407	1,545	734	864	1,415

STATISTICAL ANALYSIS OF THREE YEAR REPORT OF REHABILITATION BUREAU
From January 1, 1920 to January 1, 1923.

Registered Cases Number of persons registered with Bureau	Sex		Age										Nature of Disability												2,279	
	Male 2,226	Female 53	Negroes 71	Illiterates in English 460	Under 21 278	21-30 616	31-40 544	41-50 434	51-over 467	Unknown -----	Hand 694	Hands 22	Arm 316	Arms 9	Leg 674	Legs 75	Hand-Arm 2	Hand-Leg 2	Arm-Leg 5	Multiple 52	Vision		Hearing 5	General Debility 54		Miscellaneous 245
																					1 43	2 91				
																					1	2				

Sex		Social Condition			Rehabilitation		Other Closures		Special Services												
Male	Female	Single	Married	Dependents	By Placement	After School Training	After employment training	Not eligible	Not susceptible	Service rejected	Died	Other	Financial aid needed	Medical or surgical aid needed	Financial aid procured	Medical or surgical aid procured	Artificial appliances procured	Be-gan	En-ded	Be-gan	En-ded
1,418	33	592	856	2,715	852	112	50	44	97	167	21	105	59	15	59	15	253	59	165	115	

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DEPARTMENT OF LABOR AND INDUSTRY

ROYAL MEEKER, Secretary

NOVEMBER

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FOREWORD

The monthly publication of the Department of Labor and Industry, has been suspended since March because of the reorganization within the Department and the necessity of cutting down expenses to the limits of the budget. A Bulletin which will give concisely to the employers, the workers and the public in general, the important information as to the activities of the Bureaus of Inspection, Workmen's Compensation, Rehabilitation, Workmen's Insurance Fund, Employment, Industrial Relations and Statistics; and also of the Workmen's Compensation Board and the Industrial Board is greatly needed. A measure of the value of such a publication is evidenced by the fact that a single firm of employers requested one thousand copies of the publication containing the tables giving the figures of employment and average earning in the principal industries of the Commonwealth for the month of August. It is for the purpose of meeting the demand for information as to the multitudinous activities of the Department of Labor and Industry that "Labor and Industry" is re-established as a monthly publication on a revised and more comprehensive plan. The Bulletin of Information, formerly issued by the Industrial Board, and all other periodical publications published by the Department of Labor and Industry are merged into this new series of "Labor and Industry."

It is the intention to include each month in "Labor and Industry" the latest available statistical and other information as to employment and earnings in important industries in the Commonwealth, inspection work of the Department, accidents both fatal and non-fatal in different industrial groups, digests of important decisions by the Workmen's Compensation Board and by the courts under the Workmen's Compensation Act, results of rehabilitation work, placements by the Bureau of Employment, insurance written by the State Workmen's Insurance Fund, Industrial Relations, work of the Industrial Board and all other matters of interest and importance included in the activities of the Department of Labor and Industry.

It is hoped that the readers of "Labor and Industry" will address criticisms and suggestions of the form and contents of this publication to the Secretary of Labor and Industry.

ROYAL MEEKER,

Secretary of Labor and Industry,
Commonwealth of Pennsylvania.

The following tables show some of the activities of the Bureau of Inspection during the months of July and August.

INSPECTION

BOILER DIVISION.

July, 1923.

Number of Boilers Inspected During the Month of July, 1923
Number of Boilers Inspected Since January 1, 1923.

	July 1923	Since January 1, 1923
Total Inspections,	4163	24997
Internal Inspections,	2742	16287
External Inspections,	1421	8710
Inspections by Approved Inspectors,	541	2080
Inspections by State Inspectors,	8	79
Pennsylvania Standard Boilers Built,	261	2097
Operating Certificates Issued,	549	2644
Scale Dangerous,	75	443
Scale Ordinary,	249	1193
Internal Corrosion Dangerous,	18	93
Internal Corrosion Ordinary,	87	489
External Corrosion Dangerous,	9	35
External Corrosion Ordinary,	43	214
Pitting Dangerous,	10	37
Pitting Ordinary,	74	401
Grooving Dangerous,	0	0
Grooving Ordinary,	7	69
Defective Tube Ends Dangerous,	0	6
Defective Tube Ends Ordinary,	132	630
Defective Furnaces Dangerous,	0	0
Defective Furnaces Ordinary,	76	405
Fractures Dangerous,	0	0
Fractures Ordinary,	7	42
Defective Water Gauges Dangerous,	8	48
Defective Water Gauges Ordinary,	27	198
Defective Safety Valves Dangerous,	0	8
Defective Safety Valves Ordinary,	8	82
Defective Pressure Gauges,	15	94
Broken Stays Dangerous,	0	0
Broken Stays Ordinary,	138	679
Bulges Dangerous,	3	5
Bulges Ordinary,	47	392
Unclassified Defects Dangerous,	0	0
Unclassified Defects Ordinary,	302	2025
Total Defects Dangerous,	93	632
Total Defects Ordinary,	1222	7328
Boilers Condemned,	0	17
Boilers Suspended,	10	92
State Highway Boilers Inspected Internally,	9	78
State Highway Boilers Inspected Externally,	0	0
State Institution Boilers Inspected Internally,	8	39
State Institution Boilers Inspected Externally,	0	39
Fly Wheels and Pulleys Inspected,	4	37
Special Hydrostatic Test H. R. T. Lap Seam Boilers,	2	58

August, 1923.

Number of Boilers Inspected During the Month of August, 1923.
 Number of Boilers Inspected Since January 1, 1923.

	August 1923	Since January 1, 1923
Total Inspections,	3986	28983
Internal Inspections,	2604	18851
External Inspections,	1382	10092
Inspections by Approved Inspectors,	186	2266
Inspections by State Inspectors,	7	86
Pennsylvania Standard Boilers Built,	408	2505
Operating Certificates Issued,	193	2837
Scale Dangerous,	81	524
Scale Ordinary,	263	1456
Internal Corrosion Dangerous,	15	111
Internal Corrosion Ordinary,	91	581
External Corrosion Dangerous,	4	39
External Corrosion Ordinary,	39	253
Pitting Dangerous,	12	49
Pitting Ordinary,	83	484
Grooving Dangerous,	0	0
Grooving Ordinary,	13	73
Defective Tube Ends Dangerous,	1	7
Defective Tube Ends Ordinary,	115	795
Defective Furnaces Dangerous,	0	0
Defective Furnaces Ordinary,	63	463
Fractures Dangerous,	0	0
Fractures Ordinary,	6	48
Defective Water Gauges Dangerous,	7	55
Defective Water Gauges Ordinary,	30	228
Defective Safety Valves Dangerous,	1	9
Defective Safety Valves Ordinary,	16	98
Defective Pressure Guages,	8	102
Broken Stays Dangerous,	0	0
Broken Stays Ordinary,	27	706
Bulges Dangerous,	0	5
Bulges Ordinary,	63	455
Unclassified Defects Dangerous,	0	0
Unclassified Defects Ordinary,	283	2308
Total Defects Dangerous,	121	753
Total Defects Ordinary,	1000	8328
Boilers Condemned,	1	18
Boilers Suspended,	15	107
State Highway Boilers Inspected Internally,	8	86
State Highway Boilers Inspected Externally,	0	0
State Institution Boilers Inspected Internally,	7	46
State Institution Boilers Inspected Externally,	0	39
Fly Wheels and Pulleys Inspected,	49	86
Special Hydrostatic Test H. R. T. Lap Seam Boilers,	20	78

BUILDING DIVISION.

Plans Approved During the Month of July, 1923.

Fire-escapes,	43
Buildings,	56
Theaters,	11
Bakeries,	5
Wash and Toilet Rooms,	1
Total,	116
New Plans Received,	147
Revised Plans Received,	64
Total,	211

Plans Approved During the Month of August, 1923.

Fire-escapes,	61
Buildings,	66
Theaters,	6
Bakeries,	7
Wash and Toilet Rooms,	2
Exhaust Systems,	1
Total,	143
New Plans Received,	188
Revised Plans Received,	78
Total,	266

ELEVATOR DIVISION.

July, 1923.

During the month of July 572 elevator inspection reports were received and checked. These reports represented the activities of the approved elevator inspectors including the Departmental Inspectors. An examination of the above reports revealed the following defects which are considered to be of importance:

Dangerous defective hatch limits,	7
Dangerous defective car safeties,	6
Dangerous defective cables,	24
Dangerous defective speed governors,	7
Dangerous defective machine limits,	7
Dangerous defective brakes,	8
Dangerous defective interlocks,	27
Dangerous defective slack cable switches,	8
Dangerous defective cars,	7
Dangerous defective thrusts,	4
Dangerous defective valves,	4
Unguarded shaftways,	47
Dangerous unclassified defects,	131
Total,	287

Ordinary defective hatch limits,	9
Ordinary defective car safeties,	9
Ordinary defective cables,	13

Ordinary defective speed governors,	8
Ordinary defective drums,	1
Ordinary defective wiring,	1
Ordinary defective machine limits,	4
Ordinary defective brakes,	11
Ordinary defective interlocks,	13
Ordinary defective slack cable switches,	9
Ordinary defective cars,	5
Ordinary defective valves,	3
Unguarded shaftways,	60
Elevators condemned,	2
Ordinary unclassified defects,	153
Total,	301

Number of sets of plans and specifications received and checked,	36
Number of sets of plans and specifications approved,	34
Number of plans and specifications held in abeyance,	2

August, 1923.

During the month of August, 482 elevator inspection reports were received and checked. These reports represented the activities of the approved elevator inspectors including the Departmental Inspectors. An examination of the above reports revealed the following defects which are considered to be of importance:

Dangerous defective hatch limits,	5
Dangerous defective car safeties,	3
Dangerous defective cables,	10
Dangerous defective drums,	2
Dangerous defective speed governors,	2
Dangerous defective machine limits,	7
Dangerous defective brakes,	9
Dangerous defective interlocks,	10
Dangerous defective slack cable switches,	6
Dangerous defective cars,	8
Dangerous defective thrusts,	3
Dangerous defective valves,	3
Unguarded shaftways,	34
Dangerous unclassified defects,	72
Total,	174

Ordinary defective hatch limits,	3
Ordinary defective car safeties,	7
Ordinary defective cables,	19
Ordinary defective drums,	1
Ordinary defective speed governors,	4
Ordinary defective machine limits,	11
Ordinary defective brakes,	6
Ordinary defective interlocks,	13
Ordinary defective slack cable switches,	5
Ordinary defective cars,	5
Ordinary defective thrusts,	1
Ordinary defective valves,	4
Unguarded shaftways,	47
Elevators condemned,	0
Ordinary unclassified defects,	151
Total,	277

Number of sets of plans and specifications received and checked,	38
Number of sets of plans and specifications approved,	38

DIVISION OF RECORDS.

From January 1, 1923 to August 1, 1923

	July	Totals for year 1923
Inspections		
Inspections,	7525	58124
Special Inspections,	2001	12345
Visits,	1366	10599
Violations,	987	6853
Prosecutions,	36	197
Orders,	684	4445
Compliances,	529	3520

January 1, 1923 to September 1, 1923

	August	Totals for year 1923
Inspections,	4956	63082
Special Inspections,	1775	14120
Visits,	1166	11765
Violations,	825	7678
Prosecutions,	43	240
Orders,	543	4988
Compliances,	591	4111

RECORD OF VIOLATIONS.

July, 1923.

District	Act	Prosecutions	Total
Philadelphia	Child Labor	8	
	Woman's	2	
	Factory	3	
	Bakery	1	14
Scranton	Department	1	2
	Fire and Panic	1	
Williamsport	Woman's	4	4
Pittsburgh	Child Labor	5	
	Woman's	7	12
Erie	Woman's	1	1
Harrisburg	Mattress	3	3
Total		36	36

Prosecutions

Child Labor	13
Woman's	14
Factory	3
Bakery	1
Department	1
Fire and Panic	1
Mattress	3
Total	36

August, 1923.

District	Act	Prosecutions	Total
Philadelphia	Child Labor	8	
	Woman's	8	16
Scranton	Child Labor	1	1

Lancaster	Child Labor	2	
		Woman's	2	4
Williamsport	Child Labor	1	
		Woman's	2	
		Factory	1	4
Pittsburgh	Child Labor	3	
		Woman's	2	
		Fire and Panic	11	
		Department	1	17
Erie	Fire and Panic	1	1
Total			43	43

Prosecutions

Child Labor	15
Womans	14
Factory	1
Fire and Panic	12
Department	1
Total	43

EXAMINATIONS.

The quarterly examinations for persons desiring to secure certificates of competency as boiler or elevator inspectors will be held at the Keystone Building, 18 South Third Street, Harrisburg, Pa., on the following dates:

Boiler Inspectors' Examination: Wednesday, December 5, 1923 at 9:00 A. M.

Elevator Inspectors' Examination: Thursday, December 6, 1923 at 9:00 A. M.

All persons desiring to take these examinations should file their applications with the Secretary of the Department of Labor and Industry at least one week prior to the date of examination. Applications should be accompanied by the fee of ten dollars which is required by existing laws.

EXAMINATION OF MOTION PICTURE PROJECTIONISTS.

Examination of Motion Picture Projectionists will be held November 13, 1923, at the following places at 10 A. M.:

Pittsburgh—Fulton Building, 107 Sixth Street,

Philadelphia—S. E. Corner 4th & Walnut Streets,

Lancaster—629 Woolworth Building,

Meadville—Masonic Temple Building,

Johnstown—City Hall,

Erie—Council Chamber, City Hall,

Williamsport—341 Pine Street,

Scranton—404 Union National Bank Building,

Harrisburg—18 South Third Street.

FALL DOWN ELEVATOR SHAFTWAYS.

Within the past few months a half dozen persons have lost their lives in falling down elevator hatchways. Investigations conducted immediately after the accidents occurred, revealed in every case the fact that the hatchways and elevator gates were in accordance with the law but that the person who was injured, in some manner unknown, opened the gate and either lost his balance and fell down the shaft or else, thinking the elevator was at the landing, stepped out into the open hatchway.

Few people realize the continual danger surrounding an elevator installation. In many cases "familiarity breeds contempt". This installation can only render faithful services as long as it is used properly. Although it may perform its daily duty without injury to those using it, it is always a potential source of danger if abused. Defective equipment is not the most common cause of death from accidents in elevators but the opening of elevator gates when elevators are not at the landing, and the sticking of head in or outside of shaftway while car is not in motion.

Those in authority have a great responsibility in seeing that employees do not endanger their lives by foolish and foolhardy practices.

INSPECTORS' MANUAL

The Department of Labor and Industry is compiling manuals of all laws, rules and standards relating to health and safety of workers. While these manuals are primarily for the use of the inspectors of the Department, they doubtless will be of value to employers of labor, as well as to all others interested in the work of the Department. They will contain summaries of all laws and rulings on all kinds of inspection work with general instructions for making out reports. Due notice will be given when they are ready for distribution.

WORKMEN'S COMPENSATION

The effect of the anthracite coal strike on the number of accident reports received by the Bureau of Workmen's Compensation is clearly shown in the following tables. There were 2,991 less accidents reported during September than for the previous month. There was a decided falling off in the number of fatal accidents over the previous month, only 173 being reported during September. This is the lowest number of fatal accidents that have been reported since September, 1922. There have been 51,659 more accidents reported this year than for the corresponding nine months of 1922. Likewise, there have been 652 more fatalities in 1923 than for the first nine months of 1922.

Special attention is called to the loss of fingers and phalanges as shown in Table II. These are the first figures that have been made public since the "Finger Act" went into effect.

Table I.

ACCIDENT REPORTS RECEIVED.

1923	Fatal	Permanent Disability	Temporary Disability	Total
January -----	223	28	16,682	16,933
February -----	221	14	15,262	15,497
March -----	222	22	15,631	15,875
April -----	196	21	16,668	16,885
May -----	226	125	17,259	17,610
June -----	188	151	17,232	17,621
July -----	221	157	17,592	17,970
August -----	216	143	18,309	18,668
September -----	173	119	15,385	15,677
October -----				
November -----				
December -----				
Total—1923 -----	1,886	780	150,070	152,736
*Grand Total -----	19,942	4,773	1,545,682	1,572,110

AGREEMENTS APPROVED

1923	Fatal	Permanent Disability	Temporary Disability	Total
January	141	157	6,152	6,450
February	131	95	5,824	6,050
March	158	113	6,410	6,681
April	190	97	8,239	8,526
May	189	179	6,771	7,139
June	230	205	6,238	6,673
July	142	284	6,520	6,946
August	153	301	6,974	7,423
September	122	172	5,820	6,114
October				
November				
December				
Total—1923	1,461	1,603	59,008	62,072
*Grand Total	15,525	9,351	486,274	511,153

COMPENSATION AWARDED AND PAID

1923	Fatal Comp. Awarded	Fatal Comp. Paid	Disability Comp. Paid	Total Comp. Paid
January	\$465,011	\$252,298	\$541,755	\$799,053
February	407,292	194,471	505,670	707,411
March	502,736	241,664	524,486	768,926
April	577,571	289,187	694,025	966,783
May	495,108	227,217	550,187	772,512
June	671,382	213,742	610,828	895,952
July	461,025	248,339	486,526	795,890
August	425,185	239,149	506,723	771,057
September	448,312	171,723	446,897	666,932
October				
November				
December				
Total—1923	\$4,453,622	\$2,077,795	\$4,877,197	\$11,408,614
*Grand Total	\$41,799,902	\$14,186,983	\$33,157,778	\$89,144,663

*Since the inception of the Act—January 1, 1916.

Table II

PERMANENT INJURIES (N. B.)

1923	Loss of Legs		Loss of Arms		Loss of Hands		Loss of Feet		Loss of Eyes	
	No.	Amt. Awarded	No.	Amt. Awarded	No.	Amt. Awarded	No.	Amt. Awarded	No.	Amt. Awarded
January	8	\$19,201	8	\$19,840	50	\$99,548	26	\$42,639	63	\$96,978
February	11	27,061	3	7,526	24	46,115	9	16,880	49	71,303
March	11	24,810	4	10,320	26	52,050	10	18,000	63	98,186
April	8	2,508	3	5,769	25	46,436	10	17,004	51	76,818
May	12	28,766	6	13,712	30	58,314	18	32,689	48	74,422
June	12	29,182	7	16,811	23	44,434	14	22,890	51	84,652
July	17	40,503	13	32,658	28	56,026	16	27,998	62	91,832
August	12	20,513	9	21,447	20	37,335	13	23,220	63	97,450
September	5	10,560			20	41,574	12	21,334	30	44,735
October										
November										
December										
Total—1923	96	\$227,104	53	\$128,083	246	\$481,832	128	\$222,645	480	\$736,385
*Grand Total	766	\$1,553,795	576	\$1,198,034	1,932	\$3,329,556	1,008	\$1,555,228	4,520	\$5,945,955

PERMANENT INJURIES—Cont'd (N. B.)

1923	Loss of Fingers		Loss of Phalanges		Miscellaneous		Total Amount Paid	Total Amount Paid
	No.	Amt. Awarded	No.	Amt. Awarded	No.	Amt. Awarded		
January -----					8	\$31,196	\$369,411	\$192,777
February -----					2	8,285	177,170	177,582
March -----					2	8,347	211,713	181,467
April -----					3	5,300	171,835	219,713
May -----	62	\$21,630	20	\$3,370	4	18,740	251,634	177,335
June -----	51	17,215	64	11,454	8	3,250	230,188	239,259
July -----	98	35,910	79	13,926	4	5,444	304,297	142,174
August -----	146	48,785	90	17,058	4	12,280	284,088	167,631
September -----	68	23,440	57	11,302	1	200	153,145	162,425
October -----								
November -----								
December -----								
Total—1923 -----	425	\$147,080	310	\$57,310	36	\$93,042	\$2,093,481	\$1,660,423
*Grand Total -----	425	\$147,080	310	\$57,310	204	\$765,262	\$14,552,220	\$9,753,028

N. B. Multiple losses separated respectively.

*Since the inception of the Act—Jan. 1, 1916.

FOUR HUNDRED AND FIFTY EYES LOST.

Accident reports received by the Department for the first eight months of the year show an increasing number of eyes lost as the result of injury or infection. In the majority of cases the eye-loss is caused by foreign particles flying into the eye on account of insufficient protection either by means of suitable screens or by failure to wear goggles. The state requirements provide that when employes are engaged in any occupation where there is danger of injury to the eye from flying particles, goggles shall be provided by the employer and the employe shall be obliged to wear them.

If the enforcement of the law compelling the wearing of goggles were only to conserve man-power and cut down labor turnover, it would be well worth while, but when it is realized that it is to save the eyes, it is doubly worth while. In occupations hazardous to sight, the only possible protection to the eyes is the wearing of goggles.

In the ten years' experience of this Department in accident prevention, there is not a single example of loss of sight from flying particles of material when goggles were worn, even if the goggles were broken when struck by flying particles.

The Department has been unwilling to use drastic measures in enforcing this law, but in the face of the alarming increase of blindness, it may be necessary to prosecute employes for neglect to wear goggles.

By all means wear goggles if the safety of your eyes is at stake from injury from flying particles.

REHABILITATION

Sixty disabled persons residing in various sections of Pennsylvania were reported to the Bureau of Rehabilitation of the Department of Labor and Industry during the month of September and were offered the services of the Bureau. On October 1 the rolls of the Bureau included the names of three thousand eight hundred persons reported to the Bureau as disabled.

Forty-eight disabled persons accepted the services of the Bureau during the month of September bringing the total number of registrants of the Bureau to two thousand eight hundred and forty-three, of whom sixty-six are women, one hundred are negroes and five hundred and sixty-six were unable to read or write the English language.

Twenty-nine disabled persons were placed in remunerative employment during September at tasks they could perform in spite of their disabilities. In some cases the placements were made after institutional or employment training. The total number of disabled persons the Bureau has returned to suitable employment to October 1 is one thousand three hundred and fifty.

Forty-nine disabled persons, usually of the younger age groups, were financially aided during the month of September in training courses under the supervision of the Bureau and three necessary artificial appliances were provided disabled persons during September making a total of three hundred and seven necessary arms, legs, hands, feet and body braces the Bureau has provided to enable disabled registrants to return to work to October 1.

Of the sixty disabled persons reported to the Bureau during September three were disabled by public accidents, two by agricultural accidents, four by accidents occurring in steam and electric railroad operation; twenty in mines and thirty-one in other general industries.

STATE WORKMEN'S INSURANCE FUND

The story of what the State Workmen's Insurance Fund of Pennsylvania has done for the development of compensation coverage in seven years is worthy of careful study by the political economist and progressive business man. Its accomplishments are a challenge to every critic of State Fund.

The premium increase of approximately \$777,000 over 1922 not only reflects the prosperous condition of our industries, but continued confidence in the Fund. The employes have consistently worked for the welfare of the injured workmen and their widows and orphans. The Fund's reserve for those injured in industrial accidents is \$2,677,081, and with an additional sum of \$2,651,705, plus our catastrophe re-insurance, is sufficient to cover any possible catastrophe that might occur.

If the future may be judged by the past, the permanent success of the Fund is assured if the same methods in handling business are continued. The Statistical Department, whose chief function is the furnishing of data to the Pennsylvania Insurance Department to be used in the calculation of compensation insurance rates, naturally takes great care in allocating each accident to the correct policy under which it may cover, so that no injustice may be suffered by any policy holder in the application of the so-called experience rating plan to his policy. This plan, in a measure, determines the premium to be paid by each subscriber whose premium averages more than \$200 per year. In connection with the reporting of this data, records are kept month by month of compensation and medical payments made on account of accidents reported by each policy holder.

Realizing that the policy holders in the State Workmen's Insurance Fund are entitled to all information which they may desire, the Fund stands ready at all times to furnish any statements which policy holders may desire, and further to furnish them with any information or data with respect to their compensation insurance rates.

During the month of September, eleven fatal accidents were reported, 1191 compensation cases, and 1270 non-compensable, making a grand total for the month of 2472 accidents. For the previous month, August, 16 fatal accidents were reported, 1436 compensable cases, and 1627 non-compensable, making a grand total of 3,079 accidents. Therefore September shows a decrease over the previous month of five fatals, 245 compensable cases, and 357 non-compensable cases, or a total of 607 less accidents for the month of September as compared with the month of August.

As the anthracite mining business of the Fund is a negligible one, a big percentage of this reduction is due largely to the educational campaign that is being waged by the State Fund. Even though Employers' Compensation Liability Insurance has been in effect almost eight years in Pennsylvania, a surprisingly large number of manufacturers know very little about Schedule and Experience Rating.

For instance, just recently we noted that one of our larger risks was going bad in western Pennsylvania and most of the accidents were caused by the handling and falling of material. The Pitts-

burgh Safety Engineer was dispatched to the scene and when he brought the matter to the attention of the General Manager, he was not only surprised to learn of the accidents, but was shocked when told that their plant experience would have a decided bearing on their compensation insurance rate. Of course, this matter had been explained thoroughly to the manager a number of times, but like many other business men, he was under the impression that whether or not they had one accident or a thousand every year, their rate would be the same. When he realized that they would have to "pay the freight", he immediately called the plant officials into his office and held a safety meeting after which an employers' meeting was held. Since that time conditions throughout the plant have been greatly improved and their experience is fifty per cent. better.

Number of policies in force October 1, 1922...	21,806
Number of policies in force October 1, 1923...	22,800
Number of policies in force September 1, 1923..	22,548

EMPLOYMENT

Employment and labor conditions in Pennsylvania have not radically changed for some weeks. The indications are that the only marked and noticeable changes in the near future will be of a seasonal nature.

Building activities will naturally slow down as present operations are completed; and very few large operations, if any, will be started until next spring. Existing contracts are, of course, being rushed to completion before bad weather sets in with the result that demands for all classes of building labor have increased, with corresponding increase in wages, and bonuses.

The same statements apply to road work and highway construction where every effort is being made to complete the jobs underway and where the demands for skilled, semi-skilled, and unskilled labor are heavy, much in excess of the supply.

Inside building operations will continue without much change and with the usual unfillable demands for such skilled laborers as lathers, plasterers, ornamental bricklayers, tile setters, and carpenters. There will also be the usual shortage of inside equipment workers, such as electricians, plumbers, and steam fitters.

The normal shortage of farm labor exists in all parts of the State. The farmer cannot pay the wages to compete with the wages paid in metal and building industries and highway construction jobs.

With the successful settlement of the anthracite coal strike, employment in the coal industries, transportation lines, and allied industries has rapidly become normal. The demand for labor in the many industries, directly and indirectly allied with the coal industry, is steady.

The steel industry is going through a re-adjustment, which has somewhat unsettled employment conditions. While production has been slightly uncertain not many men have been thrown out of employment. The change to three eight-hour shifts has absorbed practically all the desirable surplus. Only the lower types, more or less undesirable, have been let out. Wages have not been lowered and in certain departments wages have unexpectedly been increased. In certain parts of the State smaller iron and steel plants have been temporarily closed, pending readjustments in wages and hours.

The demand for skilled, all-round mechanics in iron and steel work remains unchanged. There is a general surplus of specialist machine hands or tenders, who are not needed except when production is at its peak. These specialists frequently remain unemployed rather than accept other jobs.

Production of automobiles is proceeding at a steady, conservative pace. Automobile body building industries need bench hands, die makers, jig and fixture men.

With the exception of carpet mills, the textile employment condition is rather quiet. The silk and lace mills have not been running full time on account of the shortage and of the uncertain supply of raw material.

In the Philadelphia district there is an acute shortage of joiners or cabinet makers, expert carpenters, skilled woodworking machine men, demanded by the ship yards, the car building plants and the wood working industries.

In transportation and public utility lines, the supply of labor practically equals the demand. In a few places there is a surplus of track and yard workmen. There is also moderate demand for shop mechanics, helpers, and common laborers.

In wholesale and jobbing houses there is a general, as well as a seasonal demand for sales people, general repairmen, painters, warehouse men, stock clerks, and truckers. Commission openings for men and women are numerous.

In the retail business there is the seasonal increase in demand for sales people especially women in anticipation of the fall and Christmas trade.

In all parts of the State there is the normal surplus of incompetent typists, stenographers, bookkeepers, and filing clerks, who are seeking "white collar" jobs and are voluntarily unemployed. Experienced and competent office workers are placed in employment without much difficulty, though generally at moderate salaries.

Domestic workers, who live and work in the homes as maids, cooks, etc., are rapidly becoming extinct. Their places are being taken by casual, so-called "day-workers" of a more and more inferior grade. There is no sign or hope of improvement along this line.

In the eastern and western parts of the State, there is an increasing surplus of negro common labor. These negro workers are living in congested conditions in cities.

The Department of Labor and Industry in co-operation with the Federal Reserve Bank of Philadelphia presents reports of the volume of employment in September 1923 from 659 representative establishments in 35 manufacturing industries employing 269,115 persons whose total earnings for one week amounted to \$6,951,848.

The same establishments in August reported 264,867 employes and total pay-rolls amounted to \$6,870,148. In September, therefore, there was an increase over August of 1.6% in the number of employes; an increase of 1.2% in the total amount paid in wages and a decrease of .4% in the average weekly earnings.

Increases in the number of employes in September as compared with employes in identical establishments in August are shown in 17 industries and decreases in 18 industries. The largest increase 22.1% is shown in the Carpet and Rug industry. A decrease of 25.6% is shown in Structural Iron Work. Increases in the total amount of pay-roll in September as compared with August are shown with 20 of the 35 industries. Likewise the increases in the average weekly wages are shown in 20 of the 35 industries.

EMPLOYMENT AND EARNINGS IN

Group	Number of plants reporting.	Number
		Reported Sept. 15, 1923
All industries	659	269,115
Metal manufactures	237	150,590
Automobiles, bodies and parts	20	5,744
Car construction and repair	10	28,731
Electrical machinery and apparatus	22	4,552
Engines, machines & machine tools	20	9,219
Foundries and machine shops	56	13,006
Heating appliances and apparatus	14	3,302
Iron and steel blast furnaces	12	13,332
Iron and steel forgings	11	4,624
Steel works and rolling mills	42	47,502
Structural iron work	9	2,675
Other iron and steel products	21	17,632
Textile products	161	51,637
Carpets and rugs	12	4,352
Clothing	22	3,393
Hats, felt and others	4	5,052
Cotton goods	13	3,518
Silk goods	45	15,933
Woolens and worsteds	24	8,968
Knit goods and hosiery	44	10,421
Foods and tobacco	73	10,175
Bakeries	21	4,688
Confectionery and ice cream,	20	5,702
Slaughtering and meat packing	13	2,000
Cigars and tobacco	19	6,023
Building materials	53	17,632
Brick tile and terra cotta products	13	2,033
Cement	14	7,316
Glass	26	8,288
Chemicals and allied products	22	8,043
Chemicals and drugs	16	1,573
Petroleum refining	6	6,450
Miscellaneous industries	110	22,058
Lumber and planing mill products	7	713
Furniture	17	2,370
Leather tanning	22	5,882
Leather products	3	280
Boots and shoes	25	4,933
Paper and pulp products	14	3,761
Printing and publishing	19	3,178
Rubber tires and goods	3	941

PENNSYLVANIA—SEPTEMBER 1923

of wage earners		Total weekly payroll			Average weekly wages		
Reported Aug. 15, 1923	Per cent change	Week ended Sept. 15, 1923	Week ended Aug. 15, 1923	per cent change	Week ended Sept. 15, 1923	Week ended Aug. 15, 1923	Per cent change
264,867	+1.6	\$6,951,848	\$6,870,148	+1.2	\$25.83	\$25.94	-.4
147,602	+2.0	4,252,517	4,210,317	+1.0	28.24	27.52	+2.6
6,422	-10.6	150,013	168,287	-10.9	26.12	26.20	-.3
26,698	+7.6	902,237	872,894	+3.4	31.40	32.70	-4.0
4,241	+6.9	101,619	88,519	+14.8	22.42	20.87	+7.4
9,616	-3.4	246,436	254,746	-3.3	26.44	26.41	+1
13,492	-2.9	376,967	394,029	-4.3	23.78	29.20	-1.4
3,288	+2.3	103,883	98,148	+5.8	30.90	29.85	+3.5
12,130	+0.9	358,403	331,437	+8.1	26.88	27.32	-1.6
4,849	-4.6	116,237	127,495	-8.8	25.14	26.20	-4.4
45,055	+5.4	1,330,969	1,300,931	+2.3	28.02	28.87	-2.9
3,570	-25.6	70,324	93,450	-24.7	26.49	26.18	+1.2
18,211	-2.8	495,420	480,831	+3.0	28.00	26.40	+6.1
50,427	+2.4	1,033,631	1,017,013	+1.6	20.02	20.17	-.7
3,565	+22.1	109,995	89,852	+22.4	25.27	25.20	+3
3,391	+1	64,802	66,523	-2.6	19.10	19.62	-2.7
4,812	+5.0	101,727	107,423	-5.3	26.14	22.32	-9.8
3,461	+1.6	82,388	79,839	+3.2	23.42	23.07	+1.5
16,060	-.8	291,667	297,775	-2.1	18.31	18.54	-1.2
8,783	+2.1	190,527	185,028	+3.0	21.25	21.67	+9
10,355	+6	192,525	190,573	+1.0	18.47	18.40	+4
18,613	+3.0	334,418	300,600	+4.0	20.50	19.86	+1.0
4,947	-5.2	119,620	127,440	-6.1	25.52	25.76	-.9
5,281	+9.1	100,275	90,057	+10.3	18.96	18.76	+1.1
2,130	-1.5	57,961	54,676	+5.9	27.50	25.67	+7.5
6,255	+5.9	97,613	88,427	+10.4	14.73	14.14	+4.2
17,628	+1.02	511,041	513,407	-.5	28.98	20.12	-.5
2,015	-.6	57,808	59,686	-3.1	28.43	29.19	-2.6
7,334	-.2	208,607	211,883	-1.5	28.51	28.89	-1.3
8,249	+4	214,626	241,838	+1.2	29.53	20.32	+7
8,267	-2.7	221,328	232,303	-3.4	27.30	28.10	-.7
1,612	-1.2	42,100	30,890	+5.6	26.43	24.75	+6.8
6,655	-3.1	182,217	102,413	-5.3	28.25	28.91	-2.3
22,330	-1.3	545,915	527,508	+3.5	24.77	23.62	+4.9
812	-12.2	16,255	17,811	-8.7	22.80	21.93	+4.0
2,331	-1.7	57,868	52,614	+10.0	24.42	22.57	+8.2
5,920	-1.1	156,565	146,086	+7.2	26.71	24.64	+8.4
283	-1.1	5,695	5,773	-1.4	20.34	20.40	-.3
5,132	-3.9	91,232	86,773	+5.1	18.49	16.91	+9.3
3,783	-.6	94,696	104,233	-9.1	25.13	27.55	-8.6
3,144	-1.1	98,575	91,445	+7.8	31.02	29.09	+6.6
916	-2.7	25,029	22,773	+9.9	26.60	24.86	+7.0

PRIVATE EMPLOYMENT AGENCIES.

The following table is a statement of the activities of the Division of Private Employment Agencies, Bureau of Employment, for the month of September, 1923 and for the fiscal year October 1, 1922 to October 1, 1923.

In the fiscal year just completed there is a decrease in the number of complaints concerning fees from 139 to 88. The decisions in such cases made in favor of the agent show a decrease from 48 to 11. These facts show that the law and rules governing private employment agencies are better known and observed by the agents.

The total number of investigations by the inspectors of the Division remains practically unchanged. The number of violations discovered show a decrease from 42 in the previous year to 26 in the year just closed. The prosecutions for violation of the law likewise show a decrease from 5 to 2. This statement reveals a careful enforcement of the law so far as is possible and an improvement in the observance of the law and regulations.

The total number of licenses issued in the fiscal year just closed is 334, an increase of 43 over the previous fiscal year. The refusals of licenses total 26, an increase of 8 above the refusals of the former year.

EMPLOYMENT
DIVISION OF PRIVATE EMPLOYMENT AGENCIES
SEPTEMBER, 1923.

	September 1923	October 1, 1922 to October 1, 1923	
I. FEES:			
Total Complaints -----	14	88	-----
Decisions made in favor of agent -----	0	11	-----
Amount of money involved in these decisions -----	\$-----	\$138.35	-----
Decisions made in favor of complainant -----	14	77	-----
Amount of money involved in these decisions -----	\$47.75	\$575.93	-----
II. INVESTIGATIONS:			
Total investigations -----	283	2833	-----
Violations of law discovered -----	0	26	-----
Prosecutions for violation of law -----	0	2	-----
III. LICENSES:			
Total number issued -----	0	334	-----
Total fees collected and deposited in State Treasury -----	\$-----	\$16,700.00	-----
Total number surrendered -----	3	32	-----
Total number revoked -----	0	6	-----
Total number reissued -----	0	2	-----
Total refusals -----	0	26	-----
Changes in location of licensed agencies -----	0	58	-----
IV. WAGES			
Total complaints -----	0	32	-----
Amount of money involved in these complaints -----	\$-----	\$156.75	-----

INDUSTRIAL RELATIONS

ANTHRACITE COAL STRIKE.

The contract between the anthracite coal operators and the United Mine Workers of America, covering wages and working conditions in the anthracite coal fields of Pennsylvania, expired September 1, 1923, after having been in effect one year.

The United Mine Workers of America, Districts 1, 7, and 9, made the following demands: a contract for two years, complete recognition of the Union, a 20 per cent. increase in wages, an 8-hour day, and the check-off.

The operators, in reply to these demands, declined to increase wages or grant the check-off, agreed to an 8-hour day, and stated that the Union already had recognition.

The miners declared that complete recognition of their Union was essential to further negotiations and they denied that they had it. A deadlock ensued.

At this point, Governor Pinchot invited both parties to the controversy to come to Harrisburg and discuss with him the whole matter in an effort to come to some harmonious understanding, and prevent a strike. In response to this invitation the representatives of the miners and the operators met with the Governor August 28th, and after conferences with each side separately, and joint meetings, an agreement was concluded August 31st, and ratified by the miners in convention at Scranton, Pennsylvania, September 17, 1923, to continue in force until August 31, 1925.

This agreement made this.....day of September, 1923, between Districts 1, 7, and 9, United Mine Workers of America, parties of the first part, and the anthracite operators, parties of the second part, covering wages and conditions of employment in the anthracite coal fields of Pennsylvania, witnesseth:

The terms and provisions of the award of the Anthracite Coal Strike Commission and subsequent agreements made in modification thereof, or supplemental thereto, as well as the rulings and decisions of the Board of Conciliation, are hereby ratified, confirmed and continued for a further period of two years ending August 31, 1925, except in the following particulars, to wit:

1. The contract rates at each colliery shall be increased 10 per cent. over and above the rates established under the award of the United States Anthracite Coal Commission in 1920.

2. The hourly, daily, or monthly rates of outside and inside company men, working on the basis of an 8-hour day, shall be increased 10 per cent. over and above the rates established under the award of the United States Anthracite Coal Commission in 1920.

3. The hourly, daily, or monthly rates of pumpmen and engineers formerly working a 12-hour cross shift and changed to an 8-hour basis under the award of the United States Anthracite Coal Commission in 1920, shall be increased 10 per cent. over and above the rates established by the Board of Conciliation in conformity with said award.

4. The hourly or daily rates of consideration miners and consideration miners' laborers shall be increased 10 per cent. over and above the rates established under the award of the United States Anthracite Coal Commission in 1920.

5. The rates paid contract miners' laborers shall be increased 10 per cent. over and above the rates established under the award of the United States Anthracite Coal Commission in 1920, said increase to be paid by the operator and miners adding 10 per cent. to the portion of the rate now assumed by each.

6. Outside and inside company men working on the basis of a day in excess of ten hours shall be placed on the basis of an 8-hour day. The rate of pay for an 8-hour day shall be adjusted in the same manner as rates were adjusted for hoisting engineers and pumpmen who were changed from a 12-hour day to an 8-hour day in 1920, subject to the same increase of 10 per cent. provided for other company men under clause 2 hereof.

7. Outside and inside company men working on the basis of a 9 or 10-hour day shall be placed on the basis of an 8-hour day. The rates of pay for the 8-hour day shall be the rates for the 9 or 10-hour day paid under the agreement of 1916, plus \$1.80 per day for outside employes and \$2.00 per day for inside employes, plus 17 per cent. and subject to the same increase of 10 per cent. provided for other company men under clause 2 hereof.

8. Monthly men coming under the agreement of September 2, 1920, and working on a basis in excess of 8 hours per day shall be placed on the basis of an 8-hour day. The monthly rates for the 8-hour basis shall be the monthly rates paid under the agreement of May 5, 1916, plus \$54 per calendar month for outside employes and \$60 per calendar month for inside employes, plus 17 per cent. (except where modified by ruling of Board of Conciliation), and subject to the same increase of 10 per cent. provided for other company men under clause 2 hereof.

9. The colliery rate sheets of the different collieries shall be brought up to date; shall be signed by the company officials and the mine committees; and shall then be filed with the Board of Conciliation. In case of dispute as to the correctness of any rate, the rate shall be determined by the Board, after hearing. In such cases, the burden of proof shall rest with the party taking exception to the filed rate.

10. A grievance referred to the Board of Conciliation shall be answered within 15 days and shall be heard within 30 days from date of filing with the Board. Decision shall be rendered by the Board, or case shall be referred to an umpire within 30 days after hearing. In case of reference to an umpire, the decision of said umpire shall be rendered within 30 days from date of reference.

11. Rates for new work, such as opening a seam of coal, shall be made collectively as between the mine committee and company officials on the basis of the standard rates paid for similar work under conditions in the mine in question or adjacent mines. In case of disagreement the matter shall be

adjusted through the Board of Conciliation in the manner now customary. Pending decision by the Board, work shall proceed at rates set by the foreman and which shall not be less than the standard recognized rates aforesaid. No contracts shall be made with individual employes at less than the prescribed scale rates or not in keeping with customary practices. This section shall not be construed to deny to the operator the right to change the method of mining.

12. The Board of Conciliation is hereby authorized to undertake and complete a thorough study of all wage scales before the expiration of the contract and submit the same to the next joint conference. If the Board of Conciliation shall, by unanimous vote, recommend the adjustment of any inequalities in wage rates during such study, the adjustment shall take effect on a date set by the Board.

The miners called a convention at Scranton, on September 17th to ratify the agreement, the strike remaining in effect until the agreement was ratified by the convention. The convention remained in session only one day and voted to accept the agreement and call off the strike, and the men were ordered to return to work September 20th, the strike having been in effect fifteen working days, excluding Sundays and holidays.

The Department of Labor and Industry, through its Bureau of Industrial Relations, was in close touch with the situation from the beginning of negotiations.

NEW LEGISLATION

Acts passed by the General Assembly of the Commonwealth of Pennsylvania during the Session of 1923, the enforcement of which is under the jurisdiction of the Secretary of Labor and Industry are as follows:

1. An Amendment to the Workmen's Compensation Act of 1915, allowing:

"For the loss of a thumb, sixty per centum of wages during sixty weeks.

For the loss of a first finger, commonly called index finger, sixty per centum of wages during thirty-five weeks.

For the loss of a second finger, sixty per centum of wages during thirty weeks.

For the loss of a third finger, sixty per centum of wages during twenty weeks.

For the loss of a fourth finger, commonly called little finger, sixty per centum of wages during fifteen weeks.

The loss of the first phalange of the thumb, or of any finger, shall be considered equivalent to the loss of one-half of such thumb or finger.

The loss of more than one phalange of a thumb or finger shall be considered equivalent to the loss of the entire thumb or finger.

For the loss of any two or more such members, or the permanent loss of the use of the hand, arm, foot, leg or eye, as hereinbefore provided, not constituting total disability, sixty per centum of wages during the aggregate of the periods specified for each."

2. An Act known as the Bedding and Upholstery Act. This Act repeals the former Mattress Act, and provides for the inspection and tagging of all mattresses, pillows, bolsters, feather bed comfortables, cushions and articles of upholstered furniture.

The tags must be securely attached to each of such manufactured articles, and are procured from the Department of Labor and Industry. They will bear the seal of the Commonwealth of Pennsylvania, and the statement thereon will not be less than 3 x 4½ inches in size. They will cost the manufacturer \$10.00 a thousand, and the revenue from this source will be used by the Department of Labor and Industry for the enforcement of this Act.

This new Act also provides for the issuance of a yearly permit approving the process of sterilizing and disinfecting all second-hand material used in the manufacture of any of these articles, and also all second hand articles. This permit must be displayed; and refusal to display it is considered sufficient reason to revoke and forfeit the permit.

3. An amendment to Act 397 of the General Assembly of 1915, which makes it necessary for any non-resident employer to take out a state license before he or his representatives may recruit labor in Pennsylvania.

The amendment also gives to the Secretary of the Department of Labor and Industry, in addition to subpoenaing witnesses and taking evidence, full power of a constable or police officer to arrest on view any person detected violating this Act.

4. Every boiler used for generating steam or heat in any establishment shall be constructed, installed and operated in accordance with the rules and regulations of the Department of Labor and Industry, and shall be inspected by a boiler inspector who holds a commission under the rules and regulations of the Department of Labor and Industry.

If such boiler is insured in a company authorized to insure in this Commonwealth against loss from the explosion of steam boilers, such inspectors shall be in the employ of said company and the only fee collectible for inspection of such insured boiler shall be the certificate fee of one dollar.

If such boiler is not so insured and is located in a city having a boiler inspection department now established by ordinance such inspector shall be the duly appointed city boiler inspector of such city or if it is not so located such inspector shall be a salaried employe of the Department of Labor and Industry.

Every such boiler shall be inspected internally and externally while not under pressure, at least, once every twelve months and also while it is under operating conditions.

The fee for each annual internal and external inspection while not under pressure, when made by an inspector of the Department of Labor and Industry, shall be six dollars and fifty cents, and the fee for each inspection under operating conditions shall be two dollars and a-half, provided that the fees for any one boiler inspected by an inspector in the employ of the Department of Labor and Industry shall not exceed ten dollars for any one year, and the fee for the inspection of a miniature boiler by an inspector in the employ of the Department of Labor and Industry shall not exceed two dollars.

Within thirty days after his annual internal and external inspection, while not under pressure, the inspector shall send a full report of his inspection to the Department of Labor and Industry, and if the report shows that the boiler is not unsafe to operate at the pressure limit named in the report, the Department shall issue a certificate permitting the operation of such boiler at a pressure not exceeding that stated in the report for not more than thirteen months from the date of the inspection unless such certificate is earlier revoked because the boiler is found to be unsafe. For this annual certificate the owner or operator will pay a fee of one dollar to the Department of Labor and industry. These fees will be transmitted to the State treasurer, and all such moneys will be accounted for in a special fund.

This law does not apply to boilers subject to federal inspection and control (including marine boilers of steam locomotives and other self-propelled apparatus) nor to boilers on automobiles, boilers of steam fire engines brought into this Commonwealth for temporary use in times of emergency for the purpose of checking conflagrations, nor to boilers used exclusively in connection with the operation of an oil well, nor to boilers carrying a pressure of less than fifteen pounds per square inch which are accompanied with safety devices approved by the Department of Labor and Industry.

5. An amendment to an Act passed in 1905 provides that all elevators, escalators, gravity elevators, hoists or other conveyances used for the purpose of lowering or raising persons or material shall be constructed, maintained, operated, and inspected in accordance

with the rules and regulations of the Department of Labor and Industry except those in first and second class cities.

No person shall be authorized to act for the Department of Labor and Industry as an elevator inspector unless he has passed a written examination prescribed by the Department of Labor and Industry.

Application for examination as an inspector must be in writing upon a form furnished by the Department of Labor and Industry and shall be accompanied by an examination fee of ten dollars. If applicant is successful in passing the examination a certificate of competency and a commission card shall be issued to him upon payment of an additional fee of five dollars. The card thus secured will be valid for one year and will perpetuate without further examination if an annual fee of three dollars is paid.

A certificate of operation valid for a period as specified by the rules and regulations of the Department of Labor and Industry shall be granted the owner or lessee of every hoisting or lowering device specified in the Act, provided that an inspection report is filed in the Department of Labor and Industry and the elevator approved for operation is accompanied by a fee, the amount of which shall be proportionate to a total annual fee of one dollar for each hoisting or lowering device subject to inspection. This fee shall be collected by the approved inspector and forwarded to the Department of Labor and Industry.

All fees provided for by this Act shall be paid to the Secretary of the Department of Labor and Industry, who shall transmit them to the State Treasurer, and all such moneys shall be accounted for in a special fund, and are specifically appropriated to be used by the Secretary of the Department of Labor and Industry to pay expenses for the administration and enforcement of this law.

COMMONWEALTH OF PENNSYLVANIA
DEPARTMENT OF LABOR AND INDUSTRY
ROYAL MEEKER, Secretary

DECEMBER

LABOR AND INDUSTRY



V. 23 1

Harrisburg, Penna.
J. L. L. Kuhn, Printer to the Commonwealth
1923



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INSPECTION

The activities of the Bureau of Inspection during the month of September, 1923 resulted in 3,764 regular inspections, 3550 boiler inspections, 421 elevator inspections; and the approval of 88 building plans. The inspection of boilers and elevators was made either by department inspectors or persons holding licenses as approved boiler or elevator inspectors.

As a result of the inspections 29 prosecutions were brought under the various acts, the enforcement of which is delegated to the Department of Labor and Industry: Woman's Act 16, Child Labor Law 7, Bakery Law 2, Fire and Panic Act 2, and Mattress Act 2.

The activities of the various divisions is as follows:

BOILER DIVISION

Inspections, Findings and Orders (1)	September 1923 (2)	Since January 1, 1923 (3)
Total inspections	3550	32553
Internal inspections	1931	20732
External inspections	1619	11711
Total dangerous defects	97	850
Total ordinary defects	904	9232
Boilers condemned	1	19
Boilers suspended	14	121
Fly wheels and pulleys inspected	13	99

Number of Building Plans Approved During the Month of September, 1923

BUILDINGS' DIVISION

Fire-escapes,	37
Buildings,	39
Theatres,	7
Bakeries,	4
Exhaust Systems,	1
Total,	88
New Plans Received,	95
Revised Plans Received,	51
Total,	146

ELEVATOR DIVISION

During the month of September 421 elevator inspection reports were received and checked. Twenty-eight sets of plans and specifications for elevator installations were received and approved.

An examination of the inspection reports revealed the following important defects:

Dangerous defective hatch limits,	3
Dangerous defective car safeties,	3
Dangerous defective cables,	10
Dangerous defective drums,	1
Dangerous defective speed governors,	7
Dangerous defective machine limits,	5
Dangerous defective brakes,	2
Dangerous defective interlocks,	20
Dangerous defective slack cable switches,	3
Dangerous defective cars,	4
Dangerous defective thrusts,	2
Dangerous defective valves,	1
Unguarded shaftways,	52
Dangerous unclassified defects,	93
Total,	206

Ordinary defective hatch limits,	4
Ordinary defective car safeties,	6
Ordinary defective cables,	27
Ordinary defective speed governors,	4
Ordinary defective machine limits,	8
Ordinary defective brakes,	9
Ordinary defective interlocks,	9
Ordinary defective slack cable switches,	7
Ordinary defective cars,	5
Ordinary defective thrusts,	5
Ordinary defective valves,	4
Unguarded shaftways,	37
Ordinary unclassified defects,	132
Total,	257

DIVISION OF RECORDS

Inspections, Findings, and Orders (1)	September 1923 (2)	Since Jan. 1, 1923 (3)
Inspections	3764	66846
Special Inspections	1653	15773
Visits	936	12701
Violations	495	8173
Prosecutions	30	270
Orders	621	5669
Compliances	808	4919

RECORD OF VIOLATIONS

September, 1923

District (1)	Act (2)	Total By Districts (3)	Prosecutions (4)
Philadelphia	Woman's Law	17	9
	Child Labor Law		5
	Bakery		2
	Fire and Panic		1
Lancaster,	Mattress Act	2	2
Williamsport	Woman's Law	2	2
Pittsburgh	Woman's Law	5	2
	Child Labor Law		2
	Fire and Panic Act		1
Erie	Woman's Law	3	3

INFECTIONS FOLLOWING INDUSTRIAL ACCIDENTS.

The Department of Labor and Industry has for some time noticed with a great deal of concern the steady increase in the number of industrial accidents occurring throughout the state. A mere glance at the figures for the past few years is sufficient to indicate that this problem is really a serious one. During the year 1921, 140,197 accidents were reported to this department; in 1922, the number was 146,255; and for the first nine months of 1923, the number reached 152,735.

With this increase in the number of accidents there is associated another very important problem, that of the increase in the number of infections following these accidents. In some industries the percentage of accidents resulting in infections has shown a steady increase; the most marked instance being in clothing manufacture. In this industry the percentage of accidents followed by infections was 13.7 in 1921, 15.2 in 1922, and 19.0 to October 1, 1923.

As infection in most instances can be prevented by proper treatment, it has been decided to obtain some information concerning the causes of these infections with the object of reducing the frequency of their occurrence.

Up to the present time this information has been gathered on fifty cases of infection following industrial accidents as reported to this department. When it is considered that up to July 1st of this year 4,048 of such cases occurred, fifty is recognized as a very inadequate number on which to base conclusions. The results obtained are, however, here offered as a preliminary report and show the general trend of the information gathered.

The care offered the injured worker was the first point considered in this tabulation. In the fifty plants reporting ten provided a plant hospital, eleven had a plant dispensary, twenty-seven had first aid facilities available to their employees, and two made no provision whatever for treating injuries occurring to their workers during the course of their employment.

As infection so often follows neglected accidents, information was asked on the frequency with which the injured persons sought attention after they had been hurt. Of these fifty persons, only fourteen asked for and received immediate attention after the injury; the remaining thirty-six, in most instances, coming for treatment after infection had set in.

It is interesting to note that the best results were not always obtained in the plants having the most elaborate equipment. In the plants providing hospital equipment, two accidents followed by infection had been reported for treatment immediately after the accident, while eight had been reported only when the wound showed signs of infection. In plants providing dispensaries five cases received immediate treatment, and six delayed treatment. In the plants offering only first aid, seven cases were reported and

treated immediately while twenty reported their injuries only after infection had set in. The plants providing no first aid do, however, provide a physician's care. The cases occurring in these plants were not reported to the employer until after disability had begun.

One of the points on which information was asked was the means that could be adopted to lessen the cases of infection in the particular plant concerned. In eight instances no suggestions were offered for the solution of this problem. Twelve replies were to the effect that the management was at that time doing all things possible to prevent infection. The remaining thirty of the series stated, in some instances with great emphasis, that prompt reporting of all accidents and prompt treatment of them was the only solution of this problem.

The trend of the data thus far submitted shows conclusively that the large majority of the injuries studied in this group were not reported promptly and consequently did not receive early treatment. In the face of these facts, the cooperation of the management of all industries with the workers in an effort to have all cases of infection, however slight, reported promptly cannot be too strongly emphasized.

REHABILITATION

During the month of October, 45 disabled registrants of the Bureau of Rehabilitation were being aided financially from the funds of the bureau in training courses to render them fit to engage in occupations suitable to their disabilities.

Sixty-one disabled persons were reported to the bureau during October, bringing the total number of disabled persons on the rolls of the bureau to 3,861. Of that number 2,893 have registered with the bureau including 50 who registered during October. Forty-five of the 50 registrants in October were disabled by accidents during employment, three were victims of public accidents and two were disabled by disease. Twenty-two of the 50 registrants in October sustained leg injuries, 14 hand injuries, and seven arm injuries.

The distribution of the disabled persons on the rolls of the bureau by counties to November 1, is as follows:

Adams -----	5	Elk -----	19	Montour -----	8
Allegheny -----	467	Erie -----	59	Northampton --	60
Armstrong -----	49	Fayette -----	129	Northumberland	100
Beaver -----	59	Forest -----	5	Perry -----	7
Bedford -----	8	Franklin -----	15	Philadelphia ---	707
Berks -----	51	Fulton -----	2	Pike -----	2
Blair -----	60	Greene -----	9	Potter -----	7
Bradford -----	10	Huntingdon ---	18	Schuylkill -----	211
Bucks -----	20	Indiana -----	55	Snyder -----	7
Butler -----	29	Jefferson -----	51	Somerset -----	51
Cambria -----	161	Juniata -----	5	Sullivan -----	4
Cameron -----	6	Lackawanna ---	137	Susquehanna ---	7
Carbon -----	25	Lancaster -----	37	Tioga -----	6
Centre -----	17	Lawrence -----	36	Union -----	6
Chester -----	35	Lebanon -----	17	Venango -----	17
Clarion -----	29	Lehigh -----	32	Warren -----	10
Clearfield -----	111	Luzerne -----	241	Washington ---	115
Clinton -----	11	Lycoming -----	18	Wayne -----	2
Columbia -----	38	McKean -----	18	Westmoreland --	139
Crawford -----	20	Mercer -----	34	Wyoming -----	4
Cumberland -----	9	Mifflin -----	12	York -----	34
Dauphin -----	65	Monroe -----	3	Total -----	3,861
Delaware -----	66	Montgomery ---	54		

COMPENSATION

The Bureau of Workmen's Compensation announces the receipt of 17,587 accident reports during the month of October, 1923. This brings the total number received so far this year to 170,323 or 54,133 more than during the corresponding ten months of 1922. The number reported during October is an increase of 1910 over those received during September. Of the accidents reported, there were 207 fatalities. There have been 658 more fatalities reported during the past ten months than during the corresponding period in 1922. During the month of October, compensation was awarded and paid in 7,962 cases to the extent of \$810,432.

The analysis of the accidents reported, and compensation agreements approved is as follows:

Table I
ACCIDENT REPORTS RECEIVED.

1923 (1)	Fatal (2)	Permanent Disability (3)	Temporary Disability (4)	Total (5)
January -----	223	28	16,682	16,933
February -----	221	14	15,262	15,497
March -----	222	22	15,631	15,875
April -----	196	21	16,668	16,885
May -----	226	125	17,259	17,610
June -----	188	151	17,282	17,621
July -----	221	157	17,502	17,970
August -----	216	143	18,300	18,669
September -----	173	119	15,385	15,677
October, -----	207	148	17,232	17,587
November -----				
December -----				
Total—1923 -----	1,093	928	167,302	170,323
*Grand Total -----	20,149	4,260	1,428,220	1,452,638

Table II
AGREEMENTS APPROVED

1923 (1)	Fatal (2)	Permanent Disability (3)	Temporary Disability (4)	Total (5)
January -----	141	157	6,152	6,450
February -----	131	95	5,824	6,050
March -----	153	113	6,470	6,741
April -----	190	97	8,239	8,526
May -----	189	179	6,771	7,139
June -----	230	205	6,238	6,673
July -----	142	284	6,520	6,946
August -----	158	301	6,974	7,433
September -----	122	172	5,820	6,114
October -----	167	217	7,578	7,962
November -----				
December -----				
Total—1923 -----	1,628	1,820	66,586	70,034
*Grand Total -----	15,695	9,568	493,852	519,115

Table III

COMPENSATION AWARDED AND PAID

1923 (1)	Fatal Comp. Award- ed (2)	Fatal Comp. Paid (3)	Disability Comp. Paid (4)	Total Comp. Paid (5)
January -----	\$165,011	\$252,298	\$541,755	\$794,053
February -----	407,292	194,471	505,670	700,141
March -----	502,736	241,664	534,486	776,150
April -----	577,571	289,187	694,625	983,512
May -----	495,108	227,217	550,187	777,404
June -----	671,382	213,742	610,328	824,070
July -----	461,025	248,339	486,526	734,865
August -----	425,185	239,149	506,723	745,872
September -----	448,312	171,728	446,897	618,625
October -----	451,320	245,820	564,612	819,432
November -----				
December -----				
Total—1923 -----	\$4,904,942	\$2,323,615	\$5,441,809	\$7,765,424
*Grand Total -----	\$42,251,222	\$14,432,803	\$33,722,390	\$48,155,193

*Since the inception of the Act—January 1, 1916

Table IV

PERMANENT INJURIES (N. B.)

1923 (1)	Loss of Legs		Loss of Arm		Loss of Hands		Loss of Feet		Loss of Eyes	
	No. (2)	Amt. Awarded (3)	No. (4)	Amt. Awarded (5)	No. (6)	Amt. Awarded (7)	No. (8)	Amt. Awarded (9)	No. (10)	Amt. Awarded (11)
January -----	8	\$19,201	8	\$19,840	50	\$99,548	26	\$42,639	63	\$96,978
February -----	11	27,061	3	7,526	24	46,115	9	16,880	49	71,303
March -----	11	24,810	4	10,320	26	52,030	10	18,000	63	98,186
April -----	8	20,508	3	5,769	25	46,436	10	17,004	51	76,818
May -----	12	28,766	6	13,712	30	58,314	18	32,680	48	74,422
June -----	12	29,182	7	16,811	23	44,434	14	22,890	51	84,652
July -----	17	40,503	13	32,658	28	56,026	16	27,998	62	91,832
August -----	12	26,513	9	21,447	20	37,335	13	23,220	63	97,450
September -----	5	10,560			20	41,574	12	21,341	10	44,735
October -----	8	20,393	8	20,382	18	33,399	18	31,551	36	54,967
November -----										
December -----										
Total—1923 -----	104	\$247,497	61	\$148,465	264	\$515,231	146	\$254,196	516	\$791,352
*Grand Total -----	774	\$1,574,188	584	\$1,218,416	1,950	\$3,362,955	1,026	\$1,586,779	4,576	\$6,001,922

PERMANENT INJURIES Cont'd (N. B.)

1923 (12)	Loss of Fingers		Loss of Phalanges		Miscellaneous		Total Amount Awarded (19)	Total Amount Paid (20)
	No. (13)	Amt. Awarded (14)	No. (15)	Amt. Awarded (16)	No. (17)	Amt. Awarded (18)		
January -----					8	\$31,196	\$309,411	\$192,777
February -----					2	8,285	177,170	177,582
March -----					2	8,347	211,713	181,467
April -----					3	5,300	171,835	219,713
May -----	62	\$21,630	20	\$3,570	4	18,740	251,634	177,305
June -----	51	17,315	64	11,654	8	3,250	230,183	239,259
July -----	98	35,910	79	13,926	4	5,444	304,297	142,174
August -----	146	48,755	90	17,058	4	12,280	284,088	167,631
September -----	68	23,440	57	11,302	1	200	153,145	162,425
October -----	99	34,512	72	13,329	1	2,100	210,633	161,215
November -----								
December -----								
Total—1923 -----	524	\$181,592	382	\$70,639	37	\$95,142	\$2,304,114	\$1,821,688
*Grand Total -----	524	\$181,592	382	\$70,639	205	\$767,362	\$14,762,853	\$9,914,243

N. B. Multiple losses separated respectively.

*Since the inception of the Act—Jan. 1, 1916.

CLAIM PETITION ANALYSIS

The Department of Labor and Industry has completed an analysis of claim petitions filed for the payment of compensation under the Workmen's Compensation Act of 1915, as amended. "Claim Petitions" are filed only in disputed cases, and when so filed are the basis of a hearing before a referee.

The study included those claim petitions filed between January 1, 1920 and July 1, 1922. Though highly desirable, the use of a longer period was prohibited by lack of office personnel.

Table I contains a comparison of the number of claim petitions filed with the number of compensable cases of each type of insurance carrier for the corresponding period. It is of interest to note that only three percent. of the 153,503 compensable cases resulted in claim petitions being filed.

The non-insured firms appearing in Table I indicate that for the period there were 197 compensation accidents and 343 claim petitions filed. This seeming irregularity is caused by claim petitions being improperly filed for accidents not within the scope of the compensation act, and those filed against employers who fail to insure in violation of Section 305 Workmen's Compensation Act.

Table I

RATIO OF COMPENSABLE ACCIDENTS TO CLAIM PETITIONS.

Carriers (1)	Compensable Accidents (2)	Claim Petitions (3)	Ratio (4)
Entire State -----	153,502	5,311	.03
State Workmen's Ins. Fund -----	12,627	444	.04
Private Insurance Cos. -----	64,371	2,731	.04
Self-Insured Cos. -----	76,504	2,136	.03
Non-Insured Cos. -----	197	343	1.74

Table II shows the division of claim petitions by the decision rendered. Special attention is directed to Column 4 Dismissed. It shows that more than 75 per cent. of the 1543 dismissed cases were dismissed because of an agreement between the parties prior to the hearing. This figure points to the desirability of closer relations between the employe and the employer and the insurance carrier.

Table II

CLAIM PETITION DECISIONS.
JANUARY 1, 1920 to JULY 1, 1922.

Carrier (1)	Award- ed (2)	Dis- allow- ed (3)	Dis- missed (4)	With- drawn (5)	Pend- ing (6)	Inter- state Com- merce (7)	Statute of Limita- tion (8)	Total (9)
Entire State -----	1,938	1,334	1,545	368	302	56	109	5,652
Private Insurance Companies ---	946	698	811	130	80	2	64	2,731
State Workmen's Insurance -----	152	105	147	11	19	-----	10	444
Self-Insured Companies -----	710	479	475	191	193	54	34	2,136
Non-Insured Companies -----	130	52	112	36	10	-----	1	341

Table II-A

DISMISSED CLAIM PETITIONS.

JANUARY 1, 1920 to JULY 1, 1922.

Carrier (1)	Agreement (2)	Non- appearances (3)	Miscellaneous (4)	Total (5)
Entire State -----	1,131	338	76	1,545
Private Insurance Companies -----	618	163	30	811
State Workmen's Insurance -----	107	35	5	147
Self-Insured Companies -----	333	112	30	475
Non-Insured Companies -----	73	28	11	112

STATE WORKMEN'S INSURANCE FUND

The State Workmen's Insurance Fund is now approaching the close of the seventh year of its history. Payroll reports will shortly be forwarded to all policyholders in the Fund during the year 1923, on which they are required to indicate the actual amount of wages expended in the various classifications of business in which they are engaged. Judging by the increased activities, during the present year, along practically all lines of business, and considering the large number of policies in force, the management of the Fund is very hopeful that this will be the largest year in its history.

All policies of insurance issued by the State Workmen's Insurance Fund expire December 31st of the calendar year during which they were issued. This means that all of these policies must be renewed and put in force by January 1, 1924. In order to facilitate the clerical work connected with the renewal of almost 25,000 policies, it is necessary that we know in advance the intention of the present policyholders with respect to the renewal of their policy. Expiration notices and renewal certificates were forwarded to the policyholders on November 10, 1923. Already many of these notices have been returned to the Fund, signifying the intention of the policyholder to renew his policy in the Fund for another year.

Applications for State Fund policies continue to be received in large numbers, and the State Fund has every reason to believe that for the year 1923 and for the beginning of business January 1, 1924, we will have the largest premium and the largest number of policyholders than we have had during any other corresponding period in the history of the Fund.

The Claim Department reports a total of 3,026 accidents received in October 1923. This is 610 more accident reports than were received for the same month in 1922. Eighteen of these claims were fatal, against twenty-two fatals in the same period of 1922. Our adjusters investigated 1,415 assignments and made 857 re-investigations in October. Six thousand five hundred ten vouchers in payment of compensation were sent to injured employes and dependents during the past month in the amount of \$152,696.70.

The flourishing condition of the Fund is reflected in the fact that our cash premium increase over 1922 is \$736,859.85.

EMPLOYMENT

ACTIVITIES OF STATE EMPLOYMENT OFFICES.

OCTOBER, 1923.

(5 weeks)

MEN

(1)	Persons applying for positions (2)	Persons asked for by employers (3)	Persons sent to positions (4)	Persons receiving positions (5) ^a
Agriculture -----	233	206	156	133
Building Trades -----	1,721	1,437	1,323	1,134
Machinery & Metals -----	2,881	2,517	2,359	2,056
Clerical -----	334	199	193	183
Hotel & Inst'ns -----	1,395	751	838	723
Mine & Quarry -----	516	395	380	379
Transportation -----	412	227	214	172
Sales -----	138	126	102	86
Common Labor -----	9,159	8,618	7,323	7,047
Miscellaneous -----	1,015	600	708	635
Total (5 weeks) -----	17,854	15,136	13,606	12,588
^a Retentions -----				43
September (4 wks) -----	14,164	12,884	10,508	9,715
August (4 wks) -----	12,680	12,423	9,910	9,145
July (5 wks) -----	16,863	18,200	14,271	13,288
October 1922 (4 wks) -----	18,242	19,196	15,026	13,829
October 1921 (4 wks) -----	29,762	6,498	5,924	5,321

WOMEN

Agriculture & Foods -----	47	89	37	33
Clerical -----	875	221	203	158
Clothing & Textiles -----	53	23	19	15
Day Workers -----	1,295	1,073	948	938
Domestic Service -----	525	822	364	279
Hotel & Inst'ns -----	668	549	321	283
Machine & Factory -----	164	225	100	74
Prof'nl & Trained -----	90	45	18	15
Sales -----	107	45	39	35
Miscellaneous -----	121	100	78	68
Total (5 weeks) -----	3,945	3,192	2,127	1,898
^a Retentions -----				22
September (4 wks) -----	2,939	2,904	1,838	1,649
August (4 wks) -----	2,581	2,189	1,627	1,395
July (5 wks) -----	3,540	2,740	1,973	1,750
October 1922 (4 wks) -----	3,380	2,783	1,896	1,611
October 1921 (4 wks) -----	4,105	1,691	1,323	1,176

^aApplicants sent back to positions they desired to leave.

EMPLOYMENT

The classified summary report of the Bureau of Employment for the month of October, 1923, reveals about the same volume of business per week as does the report for the month of September. Since October is a five week month, the total is larger. With several exceptions, employment and labor conditions continue generally unchanged. The report as a whole represents the usual seasonal trend and conditions for this period of the year.

There is a slight increase in the number of applicants and of orders in the building trades. There is a slight decrease in the number of applicants and orders in the machinery and metal industries. There is an increase in the number of female clerical applicants and a decrease in orders for men and women clerks.

The demand for common labor shows a considerable increase on account of the special efforts made to complete before freezing weather large construction and road jobs. The demand for women factory workers shows a normal increase; while there is a slight decrease in the requisitions for sales women.

The steel, pig iron, coke and bituminous industries show little change from that of September. In spite of some contraction in these lines, there is as yet no great reduction in employment. Large orders for a wide variety of steel products have recently begun to come from Japan, which will be distributed among the steel industries of the State and will increase employment in the metals and machinery industries. In the anthracite districts, during the month of October, many brief strikes have occurred causing temporary unemployment of the workers involved. In spite of this fact, the demand for workers in all lines of the anthracite industry continues steady and strong.

In the Philadelphia district there has been a purely seasonal renewal of activity in clothing and textile industries. The record of the State Employment Office in that City shows a shortage in the ability of applicants rather than in the number. There is an increasing demand for carpenters, electricians and painters for steady inside work in the repair and renovation of old houses.

In all parts of the State where silk industries are established, there has been a slight improvement in labor and employment conditions.

In the Harrisburg district, on account of the shortage of houses, the large industries and construction companies are resorting to the use of camps and commissaries.

In the Scranton district there appears to be a slight increase in the number of idle men, due to the brief strikes, as well as to the completion of highway work in that district.

There is no cause for undue uneasiness or alarm. The prospects for the less remote future are bright, because Japanese orders to repair the damages by the earthquake have begun to arrive and because orders from Europe will increase since the Federal Government has revealed its policy of sympathy and assistance in the settlement of the prolonged distressing industrial conditions in Europe.

PRIVATE EMPLOYMENT AGENCIES

During the month of October, 1923, the Division of Private Employment Agencies issued 281 licenses and refused 7. The fees collected for licenses amounted to \$14,050.00.

The volume of business was unusually large because the fiscal year for the division begins October 1st. No licenses were surrendered, revoked or reissued.

During the month 283 investigations were made which resulted in the discovery of three violations of the law. Inasmuch as the conditions were immediately remedied, no prosecutions were instituted.

Twenty complaints relative to the collection of fees were reported which resulted in two decisions in favor of the agents, amounting to 92.67; and 18 decisions in favor of the complainants, amounting to \$134.76. There was one complaint concerning a wage dispute which was settled in favor of the complainant involving \$10.10.

STATISTICS

On May 15, 1923, the Department of Labor and Industry began a collection of union wage scale data in representative industrial cities of Pennsylvania for selected industries. The work was done in cooperation with the United States Bureau of Labor Statistics. The cities included were: Allentown, Altoona, Du Bois, Erie, Harrisburg, Johnstown, New Castle, Oil City, Philadelphia, Pittsburgh, Reading, Scranton, Warren, Wilkes-Barre, Williamsport, and York.

The industries and trades covered are those published in the table below. The final report will be an analysis of union wage scale and hours for the five-year period beginning with 1919; and is now in process of completion.

The "Union Wage Scale" represents the minimum wages received by union members at their respective trades. No attempt has been made to estimate the maximum rate received by some members. The "Average Weekly Earnings" represent the hourly or daily rate multiplied by the number of hours or days per week specified by the agreement.

The following table is a summary of the average hourly wages and earnings for the year 1923. In arriving at the figures quoted below, the separate wage rates and hourly earnings for the sixteen cities have been weighted by the number of persons receiving the rate,

UNION SCALE OF WAGES
SUMMARY OF AVERAGE WAGE PAID
HOURLY AND WEEKLY PER
EMPLOYEE.

1923

Name of Trades (1)	Average Wage per Hour (2)	Average Wage per Week (3)
BAKERY TRADES:		
Bakers	\$0.856	\$40.18
BUILDING TRADES:		
Asbestos workers	0.993	39.73
Bricklayers	1.305	57.52
Carpenters	1.069	47.18
Cement finishers	1.090	47.86
Composition roofers	0.812	35.72
Elevator constructors	1.010	41.50
Engineers—portable & hoisting	1.110	49.13
Glaziers	1.055	46.42
Hod carriers	0.931	40.96
Inside wiremen	1.037	45.76
Lathers	1.247	54.86
Marble Setters	1.123	49.44
Mosaic & terrazza workers	1.028	45.32
Painters—Fresco	1.000	44.00
Painters—Sign	1.130	49.73
Plasterers	1.368	53.28
Plasterers' laborers	0.977	43.02
Plumbers and gas fitters	1.059	46.77
Sheet metal workers	1.045	46.08
Slate and Tile roofers	1.197	52.71
Steam fitters & sprinkler fitters	1.034	46.36
Steam fitters & sprinkler fitters helpers	0.713	31.39
Stone masons	1.205	53.08
Structural iron workers	1.183	52.07
Structural iron workers finishers	1.250	55.00
The lavers	1.105	48.65
CHAUFFEURS, TEAMSTERS AND DRIVERS:		
Chauffeurs	0.534	29.69
Teamsters and drivers	0.456	26.17
Freight Handlers	0.732	36.59
GRANITE AND STONE TRADES:		
Granite cutters	1.105	48.62
Stone cutters	1.485	47.91
METAL TRADES:		
Blacksmiths	0.810	37.08
Blacksmiths' helpers	0.606	27.52
Boiler makers	0.793	37.83
Boiler makers' helpers	0.600	28.40
Coppersmiths	0.791	36.34
Machinists	0.755	35.56
Machinists' helpers	0.515	25.10
Metal polishers and buffers	0.919	47.31
Moulders and core makers	0.870	41.98
Pattern makers	0.937	45.81
MILLWORK:		
Carpenters	0.792	38.53
Sheet metal workers R. R. shops	0.750	36.00
Sheet metal workers' helpers	0.520	24.96
Painters—hardwood finishers	1.000	44.00
PRINTING AND PUBLISHING:		
Book and job	0.394	18.87
Bookbinders	0.794	38.07
Compositors	0.910	39.98
ELECTROTYPERS:		
Finishers and molders	1.229	53.04
Machine operators	0.935	41.18
Machinist operators	0.943	41.50
Photo-engravers	0.995	43.80
Press assistants and feeders	0.673	31.36
Pressmen, cylinder	0.951	44.19
Pressmen, platen	0.829	38.00

UNION SCALE OF WAGES—Concluded

Name of Trades (1)	Average Wage per Hour (2)	Average Wage per Week (3)
PRINTING AND PUBLISHING—NEWSPAPERS:		
Compositors—daywork -----	0.950	44.42
Compositors—nightwork -----	0.978	45.20
Machine operators—daywork -----	0.928	43.06
Machine operators—nightwork -----	0.963	44.23
Machine tenders (machinists) daywork -----	0.914	43.01
Machine tenders (machinists) nightwork -----	0.945	43.50
Machinist operators—daywork -----	0.933	43.92
Machinist operators—nightwork -----	0.964	45.68
Photo-engravers—daywork -----	1.067	46.62
Photo-engravers—nightwork -----	1.142	50.03
Pressmen—Webb—daywork -----	0.813	38.82
Pressmen—Webb—nightwork -----	0.860	38.40
Stereotypers—daywork -----	0.837	40.21
Stereotypers—nightwork -----	0.841	39.92

EMPLOYMENT AND WAGES IN PENNSYLVANIA

October.

The Department of Labor and Industry, in cooperation with the Federal Reserve Bank of Philadelphia, collects and compiles reports on employment and wages in manufacturing industries in this Commonwealth.

The table for October is made up of reports from 40 industries, representing 686 plants employing 283,878 persons with a total payroll for the week ending nearest October 15th of \$7,560,730. The identical establishments in September, 1923 reported a total of 283,497 employed with a payroll of 7,360,429. This indicated an increase in the number of persons employed of .1 per cent. and an increase of 2.7 per cent. in the amount of the weekly payroll. The average weekly earnings increased 2.6 per cent. from September to October.

Increases in the number of persons employed in October over those employed in September are shown in 26 industries, while the decreases are shown in only 13. The total payroll showed an increase in 32 establishments and a decrease in 8, while the average weekly earnings increased in 31 establishments and decreased in 9.

Employment in metal manufacture decreased .4, and total payroll increased 1.3 per cent. In this group iron and steel forgings employment increased 5.2 per cent. while the total payroll increased 12.7 per cent.

In the textile products, the most marked change is indicated in the report of 12 firms making carpets and rugs. Here employment decreased only .3 per cent. and the total payroll increased 13.9 per cent. This indicates an increased average weekly earning of 14.2 per cent.

Employment in foods and the tobacco industry decreased .6 per cent., while the total payroll increased 5.9 per cent. The greatest change in relation of employment to payroll in this group was shown by the cigars and tobacco which decreased 5.3 per cent. in employment and increased 4.8 per cent. in total weekly payroll. This is essentially a low paid industry, employing many women, and the average weekly wages increased from \$14.73 in September to \$16.30 in October, or an increase of 10.7 per cent.

In building material, brick tile and terra cotta products show a decrease of 10.3 per cent. in average weekly earnings. Here employment increased 3.8 per cent. while earnings decreased 3.9 per cent.

While chemical and allied products increased generally, there were violent fluctuations in various industries of the group. The entire group shows an increase of 3.2 per cent. in employment and 7.3 per cent. in total weekly payroll, which results in an increase of 4.1 per cent. in average weekly earnings. In this group chemicals and drugs showed an increase of 15.6 per cent., paints and varnishes an increase of 8.8 per cent., and coke an increase of 18½ per cent. These increases are counter-balanced by a decrease of .9 per cent. in petroleum refining.

Employment in the miscellaneous industries indicates no fluctuation for earnings for the group with an increase in total payroll of .2 per cent. Fluctuations within the group indicated a general increase in average weekly earnings in 7 of the 8 industries listed. Furniture showing a decrease of 3.8 per cent.

In comparing this table with that published in the November issue, it is to be noted that the table this month is made up from reports from 686 establishments, reporting 40 industries as compared with that of November, it being composed of reports from 659 establishments representing 35 industries. As explained in the first report, it is hoped that an increasing number of firms will cooperate in making this report more complete. It is gratifying to note the increases which have already taken place.

EMPLOYMENT AND WAGES

Group and Industry (1)	Number of plants reporting (2)	Number of
		Oct. 15, 1923 (3)
All industries (40) -----	686	233,878
Metal manufactures -----	246	162,983
Automobiles, bodies and parts -----	18	5,645
Car construction and repair -----	12	27,449
Electrical machinery and apparatus -----	20	4,438
Engines, machines and machine tools -----	20	9,179
Foundries and machine shops -----	58	12,311
Heating appliances and apparatus -----	14	3,191
Iron and steel blast furnaces -----	11	13,415
Iron and steel forgings -----	11	4,866
Steel works and rolling mills -----	44	50,292
Structural iron works -----	7	2,166
Other iron and steel products -----	27	23,573
Shipbuilding -----	4	6,458
Textile products -----	169	52,216
Carpets and rugs -----	12	3,511
Clothing -----	28	5,039
Hats, felt and other -----	3	4,787
Cotton goods -----	13	3,592
Silk goods -----	46	16,865
Woolens and worsteds -----	22	8,964
Knit goods and hosiery -----	38	8,753
Dyeing and finishing textiles -----	7	736
Foods and tobacco -----	73	19,096
Bakeries -----	21	4,614
Confectionery and ice cream -----	21	6,108
Slaughtering and meat packing -----	13	2,099
Cigars and tobacco -----	18	6,275
Building materials -----	55	15,732
Brick, tile and terra cotta products -----	13	2,111
Cement -----	14	7,062
Glass -----	24	6,140
Pottery -----	4	419
Chemicals and allied products -----	30	9,747
Chemicals and drugs -----	17	1,735
Paints and varnishes -----	6	664
Petroleum refining -----	4	6,627
Coke -----	3	721
Miscellaneous industries -----	113	24,074
Lumber and planing mill products -----	8	2,313
Furniture -----	16	2,374
Leather tanning -----	26	6,259
Leather products -----	3	298
Boots and shoes -----	25	4,964
Paper and pulp products -----	13	3,650
Printing and publishing -----	19	3,239
Rubber tires and goods, -----	3	977

—PENNSYLVANIA

wage earners reported.		Total weekly payroll-week ended.			Average weekly wage-week ended.		
Sept. 15, 1923	Per cent change	Oct. 15, 1923	Sept. 15, 1923	Per cent change	Oct. 15, 1923	Sept. 15, 1923	Per cent change
(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)
\$283,497	+1	\$7,560,730	\$7,360,429	+2.7	\$26.63	\$25.95	+2.6
163,664	-.04	4,703,532	4,642,904	+1.3	28.86	28.37	+1.7
5,680	-6	155,025	148,713	+4.2	27.46	26.18	+4.9
27,350	+4	866,521	892,964	-3.0	31.57	32.65	-3.3
4,289	+3.5	98,143	97,097	+1.1	22.11	22.64	-2.3
9,324	-1.6	252,827	246,397	+2.6	27.54	26.43	+4.2
13,228	-6.9	362,767	383,184	-5.3	29.47	28.97	+1.7
3,362	-5.1	96,753	103,883	-6.9	30.32	30.90	-1.9
13,183	+1.8	340,500	351,660	-4.0	25.38	26.90	-5.7
4,624	+5.2	131,018	116,237	+12.7	26.93	25.14	+7.1
49,982	+6	1,457,673	1,388,696	+5.0	28.98	27.78	+4.8
2,133	+1.5	55,856	55,167	+1.2	25.79	25.86	-.3
24,092	-2.2	704,625	677,136	+4.1	29.89	28.11	+6.3
6,417	+6	181,815	178,770	+1.7	28.15	27.86	+1.0
51,914	+6	1,115,195	1,048,226	+6.4	21.35	20.19	+5.7
3,522	-3	100,620	88,358	+13.9	28.66	25.09	+14.2
4,394	+9	106,984	104,261	+2.6	21.24	20.88	+1.7
4,783	+1	109,551	100,777	+8.7	22.89	21.07	+5.6
3,518	+2.1	87,982	82,388	+6.8	24.40	23.42	+4.6
16,651	+1.3	315,796	308,596	+2.3	18.72	18.53	+1.0
8,743	+2.5	200,221	186,687	+7.2	22.34	21.35	+4.6
9,007	-2.8	173,632	158,212	+9.7	19.04	17.57	+12.9
696	+5.7	20,409	18,947	+7.7	27.73	27.22	+1.9
19,213	-6	406,457	383,963	+5.9	21.23	19.98	+6.5
4,688	-1.6	123,757	118,649	+4.3	26.82	25.31	+6.0
5,800	+5.3	120,747	109,800	+10.0	19.77	18.93	+4.4
2,099	0	59,660	57,901	+3.0	28.42	27.59	+3.0
6,626	-5.8	102,293	97,613	+4.8	16.30	14.73	+10.7
15,195	+3.5	448,259	429,322	+4.4	28.49	28.25	+.8
2,033	+3.8	53,837	57,808	-6.9	25.50	28.43	-10.3
7,077	-2	209,728	201,428	+4.1	29.70	28.46	+4.4
5,703	+7.7	173,876	159,636	+8.9	28.32	27.99	+1.2
882	+9.7	10,818	10,450	+3.5	25.82	27.36	-5.6
9,449	+3.2	284,331	264,891	+7.3	29.17	28.03	+4.1
1,706	+1.7	52,547	44,719	+17.5	30.29	26.21	+15.6
622	+6.8	18,403	15,849	+16.1	27.72	25.48	+8.8
6,392	+3.7	185,252	180,321	+2.7	27.95	28.21	-.9
729	-1.1	28,129	24,002	+17.2	39.01	32.92	+18.6
24,062	+0	602,956	591,123	+2.0	25.05	24.57	+2.0
2,470	-6.4	51,303	54,171	-5.3	22.18	21.93	+1.1
2,323	+2.2	55,628	56,562	-1.7	23.43	24.35	-3.8
6,176	+1.3	169,744	165,151	+2.8	27.12	26.74	+1.4
250	+6.4	6,311	5,695	+10.8	21.18	20.34	+4.1
4,933	+6	93,396	91,244	+2.4	18.81	18.50	+1.7
3,761	-3.0	95,327	94,696	+.7	26.12	25.18	+3.7
3,178	+1.9	102,740	98,575	+4.2	31.72	31.02	+2.3
941	+3.8	28,507	25,029	+13.9	29.18	26.60	+9.7

INDUSTRIAL BOARD

Polishing and Grinding Standards

The revision of the Polishing and Grinding Standards of the Department, which was announced in the June Bulletin of Information, has progressed to the point where all the material available has been collected and compiled in the form of a tentative draft which will be presented to the committee on revision.

The revision committee is now being formed and the personnel will be announced in the next issue of the Bulletin.

Crane Standards

The final committee on revision of the Crane Standards was held on Friday, November 9, 1923. All the criticism that had been received at the various public hearings and by brief was presented to the committee for their consideration in compiling the final draft of the Standards.

This draft will be presented to the Industrial Board for approval at its next meeting.

Boiler Safety Standards

The Boiler Safety Standards which have been in effect since July, 1916, will be revised in order that they may conform to the revised Standards of the American Society of Mechanical Engineers. This revision will cover the power and heating boiler sections of the Standards.

COMMONWEALTH OF PENNSYLVANIA
DEPARTMENT OF LABOR AND INDUSTRY

Royal Meeker, Secretary



Industrial Home Work
in Pennsylvania.

DATA COLLECTED IN 1916-1917 WITH PREFACE
INCLUDING BRIEF SURVEY IN 1920

by

AGNES MARY HADDEN BYRNES, PH. D.

1920

Prepared through the co-operation of the Department of Labor and Industry, Commonwealth of Pennsylvania, the Consumers' League of Eastern Pennsylvania, and the Carola Woerishoffer Graduate Department of Social Economy and Social Research, Bryn Mawr College.



INDUSTRIAL HOME WORK IN
PENNSYLVANIA

by

AGNES MARY HADDEN BYRNES

INDUSTRIAL HOME WORK IN PENNSYLVANIA

AGNES MARY HADDEN BYRNES
SUSAN B. ANTHONY SCHOLAR and
CAROLA WOERISHOFFER FELLOW

A DISSERTATION

Presented to the Faculty of Bryn Mawr College in Partial
Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree of
Doctor of Philosophy.

FOREWORD

One of the most difficult problems of industry is that of factory and shop work which is done in the home. The custom is an old one and in spite of industrial progress it is still practiced to an alarming extent, as this study on industrial home work in Pennsylvania plainly indicates.

From the standpoint of the Department of Labor and Industry it is comparatively easy to enforce the labor laws of the Commonwealth where there is a recognized industrial establishment. It is possible here to observe the methods and devices for safeguarding workers, their hours of labor, and other legal restrictions placed upon them in industry. It is obvious that when the home becomes a shop or a factory the guiding hand of government functions with much greater difficulty.

The Industrial Board realizing the importance of a survey on home work in Pennsylvania, the first of its kind that has been made, is pleased to submit this publication to the people of the Commonwealth who are interested in industrial betterment as well as social betterment.

This study represents the cooperative efforts of the Department of Labor and Industry, the Consumers' League of Eastern Pennsylvania and the Carola Woerishoffer Graduate Department of Social Economy and Social Research of Bryn Mawr College. Special credit is due Agnes Mary Hadden Byrnes, Ph. D., formerly Susan B. Anthony scholar in Social Economy and Politics, Bryn Mawr College, and at present assistant professor of the Margaret Morrison Carnegie College, Carnegie Institute of Technology, who has prepared this report under the direction and supervision of Dr. Susan M. Kingsbury and other members of the Bryn Mawr College Faculty. The Consumers' League of Eastern Pennsylvania, through its Secretaries, Miss Mary McConnell and Miss A. Estelle Lauder, and also through financial contribution, have rendered valuable service in making this publication possible.

CLIFFORD B. CONNELLEY, Chairman

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PREFACE

This study of Industrial Home Work in Pennsylvania was made in 1916 and 1917. As the demands of war during these years caused an enormous expansion of industry with an accompanying shortage of labor, the Department of Labor and Industry of Pennsylvania believed it essential to discover to what extent the system of home work persists in industries involved in 1916 and 1917, and what, if any, changes have occurred in the numbers employed and wages paid.

For this purpose, the Department of Labor and Industry, in September 1920, gathered certain facts concerning employment of women at home during the years 1919 and 1920. It sent the questionnaire used in the earlier survey, to one hundred manufacturers who had formerly reported use of home work. In addition, the writer interviewed sixteen manufacturers in different industries employing home workers. The survey extended from Philadelphia to Norristown, Spring City, Reading and Pittsburgh.¹

It was ascertained through this inquiry that industrial depression in all the clothing and textile industries exists and that it had begun in July after a period of unusual prosperity. Manufacturers of both men's and women's apparel report the necessity of running their factories at one half their capacity. In Spring City and in other cities manufacturers of hosiery and knit goods have closed their mills in spite of the fact that ordinarily the month of September is a busy season. This curtailment of output extends also in Reading to the manufacture of men's and women's felt hats.

However, a few manufacturers in other industries reported that no curtailment of production had as yet been necessary. These included the manufacture of cigars, sporting goods, paper tags, hooks and eyes, patent fasteners, and toilet and safety pins.

Employers repeatedly assert that industrial depression leads to unemployment for the home worker before all other wage earners, since the factory owner employs her primarily to offset unusual or seasonal expansion of industry. Clothing and textile manufacturers declare that they first discharge home workers when business becomes slack and that now they are turning away many applicants for both inside and outside work. A manufacturer of cigars claims that he no longer has any difficulty in getting all the inside and outside workers that he needs, since he can readily recruit them from the

¹Attention is called to the recent publication: United States Department of Labor, Women's Bureau, Bulletin 9, *Home Work in Bridgeport, Connecticut*, December, 1919.

textile and clothing industries. A manufacturer of suspenders makes a similar statement in regard to the ready supply of wage earners formerly employed in the manufacture of women's blouses.

On the other hand, in one district in Philadelphia actual competition exists among employers for home workers. Here one manufacturer gives out tags to be strung with cord and wire to as many as five hundred workers at a time. Another gives out safety pins to be carded to as many as one hundred workers. A third gives out cotton dresses to have bastings removed and for pressing. Italians in this district eagerly seek the employer that pays the best wages. The manufacturers both of tags and of hooks and eyes have machines in the factory to perform the process done by hand in the homes, yet the cheap labor supply makes handwork profitable.

Regardless of the industrial situation the number of home workers employed by fifty-five firms in 1919 is but little less (18%) than that employed by the same firms in 1916 (as summarized in Table A).

TABLE A.

COMPARISON OF NUMBER OF HOME WORKERS EMPLOYED BY THE SAME MANUFACTURERS IN 1916 AND 1917.

Industries	Number of firms	Number of home workers	
		1916	1919
ALL INDUSTRIES, -----	55	4,057	3,314
Hosiery, knit goods, -----	14	754	425
Men's clothing (coats, pants, vests), -----	9	253	76
Women's, children's clothing, -----	4	223	107
Rag rugs, -----	4	605	680
Tobacco, -----	1	30	60
Baseballs, -----	1	95	215
Embroidered, lace goods, -----	5	399	349
Gloves, other than leather, -----	3	93	77
Hats, -----	1	45	15
Hooks, eyes, safety pins, pearl buttons, -----	2	1,035	125
Neckwear, -----	2	29	24
Paper goods, -----	5	334	1,046
Silk goods, -----	1	122	45
Spectacles, goggles, eye protectors, -----	1	4	35
Suspenders, -----	2	31	26

The number reported for 1919 (3314) is 82 per cent of that reported for 1916 (4057). To be sure the large group of women making men's army shirts in and about Philadelphia, not considered in the study of Industrial Home Work in Pennsylvania, has no doubt been considerably reduced, as the production was greatly augmented by the demand of war.

In Pittsburgh also many home workshops have gone out of existence. In December 1916, there were, according to the records of the Internal Revenue Collector, 170 factories and workshops in the city, while in December 1919, there were only 118. Formerly the Jewish immigrant worked in the shop of a compatriot until he learned to make stogies. Then he would open a workshop in his house. But immigrants have not come to this country since the beginning of the war and only one home workshop has been established on "the Hill" in the last two years. The tendency to go out of business has been stimulated by the constantly increased cost of production, for the value of raw material and tobacco have rapidly increased and the wages of a strongly unionized group of workers in the industry have advanced. Former owners of home workshops have sought more remunerative occupations opened up by the war.

The survey in 1920 also reveals a considerable shifting from one industry to another in the use of home work. As shown in Table A, the number of home workers employed in the manufacture of men's clothing, women's and children's clothing, and of hosiery and knit goods, is considerably less in 1919 than in 1916. In the manufacture of hooks and eyes, a wider use of a machine in the factory has reduced the number of home workers carding by hand. The reduction in number of home workers in the men's clothing industry is conspicuous. Several firms have discontinued the use of the system altogether. In one case, a manufacturer of trousers no longer requires home workers, since he has changed his product from a hand finished to an entire machine made garment.

On the other hand the number of home workers employed in the manufacture of paper goods, baseballs and rag rugs is considerably larger in 1919 than in 1916. Home workers in increased numbers are stringing tags, assembling valentines, Christmas bells, Hallowe'en decorations and paper hats, sewing carpet rags, knotting fringes of rugs and covering baseballs. Previous to 1916 the latter process in the manufacture of a five cent baseball had occupied 1500 home workers. The discontinuance of the manufacture of this product reduced the number of home workers. However, the number of women in their homes, covering baseballs, now selling for twenty-five cents and over, has more than doubled since 1916.

Some processes of home work either newly developed, or not reported in 1916, came to light. A few besides those mentioned above, are the closing of the thumbs of gloves and inserting them; crocheting women's and children's headwear; knitting sacques and bootees for infants; knitting and twisting shawl fringes; mending machine made laces including curtains; and finishing goggles by sewing silk nose pieces on metal and shell frames, velvet braid on side shields, and elastic head bands on masks. Of interest is the gradual extension of the use of home work to products of recent demand in the market. A further use of home work was discovered in Philadelphia. To the children of an orphan asylum, one manufacturer gives out tags to be strung with cord and wire. These children earn altogether an average of twenty-two dollars a week. Home work may have been introduced into industries not heretofore considered. Of this the brief survey could take no account.

Low rates of pay under a system of home work have been conspicuous. A comparison of written reports of employers to the Department of Labor and Industry shows that these rates, while somewhat higher in 1919 than in 1916, have not risen commensurately either with the increase in earnings of factory workers, or, by a far greater measure, with the increase in the cost of living. Manufacturers acknowledge a difference of twenty-five and fifty per cent in the rise of wages of inside and outside workers.

Increase of rates of pay, as shown in Table B. vary from twenty-four to one-hundred-forty-five per cent, including a bonus of thirty per cent, given by one manufacturer for a box of thirty pounds of tobacco, stripped and arranged according to a standard. The twenty-four per cent rise in rate of pay for labelling cigar boxes, is the minimum per cent of increase among our small number of sample rates of pay, quoted by manufacturers. The rise of rates of pay seems conspicuous in two instances. In the manufacture of women's silk dresses, usually performed by experienced dressmakers, the rate of pay is stated to have increased one-hundred per cent. Comparisons in this industry, however, are difficult, since styles of manufacture are unstandardized, varying from season to season. In the second instance the report shows the rate of pay of loopers in the hosiery industry, few in number among home workers, to have risen one-hundred-forty-five per cent. But loopers are highly skilled and very scarce. Forty-five per cent is the median rate of increase of pay according to our limited sample.

TABLE B.

COMPARISON OF RATES OF PAY OF HOME WORKERS IN 1916 AND 1920.

Industrial Process	Rate of pay in cents		Per cent of increase in 1920
	1916	1920	
Stripping tobacco (30 lbs.), -----	50	50 ²	0
Labelling cigar boxes (100), -----	85	105	24
Looping garters (gross), -----	22	28	27
Covering baseballs (dozen), -----	18	25	39
Taping arms of undershirts (dozen), -----	2½	3½	40
Taping necks and arms of undershirts (dozen), --	5	7	40
Stringing tags (1000), -----	6	9 ³	50
Trimming men's hats (4 dozen), -----	20	30	50
Mending hosiery, "seconds" (dozen pairs), ----	5	9	80
Mending hosiery, "first" (dozen pairs), -----	6	11	83
Making women's silk dresses, -----	100	200	100
Looping hosiery (dozen pairs), -----	5½	13½	145

¹These rates of pay are quoted from reports to the State Department of Labor and Industry by the same manufacturer in 1916 and in 1920, for the identical processes.

²A bonus of 15 cents on each box of tobacco stripped and arranged according to standard.

³A bonus of 5 per cent on weekly earnings from \$2 to \$5; 8 per cent, from \$6 to \$10; 10 per cent from \$10 and upwards. A case of competition of employers for home workers.

The average annual wage paid to home workers in 1919 is 74 per cent (\$120) of that in 1916 (\$162), (as shown in Table C). Our sample of 1916, consisting of 7905 workers, (see Table XXI) is considerably larger, however, than that of 1919, consisting of only 3161 workers. But an increased rate of pay with a decreased annual wage is probably due to less employment for home workers in the past year than in 1916.

In conclusion, in the industries considered since 1916 there has been a slight reduction in the total number of home workers employed but the number has increased in some industries and decreased in others. There has been a shifting of home workers from one kind of industry to another, and from one process to another. There has been more unemployment among home workers in 1919 than in 1916, and a marked increase in unemployment during the last few months for both outside and inside workers. The increase in rates of pay to home workers has been less than to factory workers and is widely divergent in different industries. Curiously enough the earlier study was made in a period of industrial expansion and would indicate the maximum of home industry; the present survey is made in a period of industrial depression and presumably represents a minimum of employment at home. From year to year there has been some variation in the total number employed and in the wages paid, but the changes are too slight to affect materially the picture here drawn of home work and home workers.

TABLE C.

COMPARISON OF ANNUAL WAGES OF HOME WORKERS IN VARIOUS INDUSTRIES IN 1916 AND 1919.

Industries	Average annual wages in dollars*	
	1916	1919
AVERAGE ANNUAL WAGE, -----	162	120
Hosiery, knit goods, -----	88	150
Men's clothing (coats, pants, vests), -----	349	279
Women's, children's clothing, -----	270	341
Rag rugs, -----	45	47
Other industries, -----	131	118

*This average is secured by dividing the amount of wages paid by the total number of workers employed. These figures were reported by manufacturers. (See Questionnaire, Appendix II.)

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INDUSTRIAL HOME WORK IN PENNSYLVANIA.

CHAPTER I.

INTRODUCTION.

ORIGIN OF THE INVESTIGATION.—Studies of industrial home work in a few other states¹ and observations by the Consumers' League in Philadelphia led to the conviction that the so-called home industries were carried on extensively in the city and other parts of the State, under conditions of labor detrimental to home, to society, and to industry. In the streets of Philadelphia Italian women come and go with huge bundles of clothing, carting them in curious vehicles or carrying them under their arms. Women stop at the rug manufacturer's with gunny sacks filled with carpet rags or make frequent journeys with heavy suitcases and packages to the United States Arsenal where inside workers cut out army shirts. Long lines of women outside of factories await their pay envelopes or their assignments of work. Huge auto trucks move to the small villages, piled high with unfinished suits of men's clothing. Besides these signs of the street, social workers in their visits to the sick and the poverty-stricken, frequently discover in the homes, industrial processes in operation. Moreover, manufacturers through the "help wanted" columns of the newspaper make daily appeals for home workers. A large amount of this type of evidence led the Consumers' League of Eastern Pennsylvania and the Carola Woerishoffer Graduate Department of Social Economy of Bryn Mawr College to initiate this investigation and to secure the cooperation of the Commissioner of Labor and Industry of the State of Pennsylvania.

The acquisition of data was accomplished through a mail canvass and through personal inquiry conducted cooperatively by the Commissioner of Labor and Industry of Pennsylvania, the Consumers' League of Eastern Pennsylvania, the students of the Carola Woerishoffer Graduate Department of Social Economy, and the writer. The student presenting this dissertation personally framed the home worker's schedule, interviewed 100 manufacturers and 37 workers, planned the tables, worked out the analysis and interpretation of the data, and prepared the report. Mr. John Price Jackson, Commissioner of Labor and Industry, sent a preliminary questionnaire to selected industrial establishments and gave to the visitors a letter of

1 Women's Educational and Industrial Union, Boston: *Industrial Home Work in Massachusetts*, 1914.
State of New York, Report of the Factory Investigating Commission, 1912-1915.
Report on Condition of Woman and Child Wage Earners, *Men's Ready Made Clothing*, 1911, Vol. II, pp. 215-318.
United States Report of the Industrial Commission, 1900-1902, Vols. VII, VIII, X, XIV, XV, XVI, XIX.

introduction to manufacturers. The Consumers' League of Eastern Pennsylvania generously provided a clerical worker who entered and counted the returns, and three visitors, who under the direction of Miss Mary McConnell secured schedules from 776 home workers and 21 manufacturers. The students of the Department of Social Economy visited 300 workers and 109 manufacturers.¹

SOURCES OF INFORMATION.—From the Industrial Directory of Pennsylvania, which enumerates the industries of the state with the names and addresses of manufacturers, 45 industries were selected in which industrial home work was known to exist through previous studies in other states and through a preliminary survey in Philadelphia and surrounding districts.² Questionnaires were then sent to 3028 manufacturers listed under these industries (as shown in Table I).³ Of these 3028 manufacturers, 66 per cent (1984) answered, and of this number, according to Table II, 23 per cent (451) employ home workers.

A study of these returns indicates that the largest number of home workers manufacture women's and children's knit underwear and outer garments, men's coats and trousers, and rag carpets. Individual factory owners here and there, such as those that manufacture hooks and eyes, paper tags, neckties, and embroidered goods also utilize this labor supply. In certain industries in which home work once prevailed such as the manufacture of boots and shoes, silk goods, and paper boxes, the use of improved machinery is rapidly making the employment of home workers impracticable.

¹The following students collected these schedules: Inez Neterer, Adrienne Kenyon, Helen Ruth Hibbard, and Helen Fuller.

The visitors were Mildred Lane, Elizabeth Sedgwick, and Eliza Evans.

²Department of Labor and Industry, Second Industrial Directory of Pennsylvania, 1916.

³See appendix IV for form of questionnaire.

TABLE I.

MANUFACTURERS CANVASSED TO DETERMINE THOSE
EMPLOYING HOME WORKERS¹

Industries	Number of questionnaires	
	Sent ¹	Answered ²
ALL INDUSTRIES, -----	3,028	1,984
Artificial flowers, feathers, plumes, -----	21	12
Bags, other than paper, -----	10	9
Boots, shoes, -----	128	67
Boxes—fancy, paper, -----	134	96
Brushes, -----	45	32
Buttons, -----	24	16
Carpets, rugs, -----	111	79
Cheroots, stogies, -----	64	36
Clothing manufacture, -----	124	83
Clothing—men's, -----	269	147
Clothing—women's, children's, -----	332	160
Corsets, ladies' skirts, shirtwaists, -----	108	52
Curtains, upholstery, -----	82	56
Fancy articles, specialties, -----	16	11
Flags, banners, regalia, emblems, -----	27	19
Furnishing goods, -----	23	14
Gloves, -----	26	18
Hair work, -----	24	17
Handkerchiefs, emhroideries, -----	50	31
Hats—straw, millinery, -----	65	43
Hosiery, knit goods, underwear, -----	480	350
Labels, tags, -----	19	10
Neckwear, -----	30	14
Needles, pins, hooks, eyes, -----	9	7
Optical goods, watches, clocks, jewelry, -----	135	90
Overalls, -----	26	17
Paper, printing industries, -----	69	53
Shirts, -----	183	100
Silk, silk goods, throwsters, -----	257	179
Silver, plated ware, -----	14	11
Sporting, athletic goods, -----	12	7
Stationery goods, -----	35	22
Statuary, art goods, -----	7	4
Suspenders, -----	13	9
Toilet preparations, -----	23	14
Toys, games, -----	14	7
Umbrellas, parasols, -----	19	-----
Industries unidentified, -----	-----	98

¹Classification of Industrial Directory of Pennsylvania.²Twenty-three per cent (451) report the employment of home workers.

TABLE II.

FIRMS GIVING OUT WORK AND NUMBER
OF HOME WORKERS EMPLOYED.

Industries.	Number of Firms ³		Number of home workers
	Total	Report of manufac- turers	
ALL INDUSTRIES, -----	712	451	12,394
Hosiery, knit goods, -----	194	148	2,850
Men's clothing (coats, pants, vests) -----	154	85	2,033
Mens clothing (shirts) ¹ -----	46	32	548
Women's, children's clothing, -----	41	30	1,051
Rag rugs, -----	18	13	1,397
Tobacco ² -----	39	5	346
Other industries: -----			
Bags, -----	3	2	40
Bolts, -----	1	-----	70
Books, -----	7	3	10
Brushes, -----	3	2	9
Chairs, -----	3	2	7
Cough drops, candy eggs, -----	1	-----	16
Curtains, -----	7	7	30
Embroidered and lace goods, -----	15	11	399
Flags, banners, -----	9	6	36
Gas mantles, gas meters, -----	2	-----	7
Gloves, leather -----	1	1	4
Gloves, other than leather -----	11	9	162
Hair goods, -----	8	8	22
Handkerchiefs, -----	3	2	138
Hat, artificial flowers, -----	5	2	177
Hooks, eyes, patent fasteners, -----	1	-----	1,000
Jewelry, silverware, -----	2	1	15
Lamp shades, -----	1	1	3
Leather goods, -----	1	-----	3
Metal novelties, -----	1	-----	6
Neckwear, dress and hat trimmings, -----	30	13	518
Novelty goods, -----	5	1	9
Paper goods, -----	40	32	688
Razors, blades, -----	1	-----	4
Sanitary rubber goods, corsets -----	2	1	27
Sheets, pillow cases, -----	1	-----	5
Shoes, trimmings, -----	10	7	120
Silk goods, -----	25	18	429
Spectacles, cases, -----	2	2	5
Suspenders, garters, -----	2	2	31
Toilet preparations, -----	1	1	5
Toys, sporting goods, dolls' dresses, -----	4	3	102
Umbrellas, parasols, -----	3	-----	60
Woolen goods, -----	1	1	3

¹ In addition to this number there are between 3000 and 5000 home workers who make army shirts.² The tobacco industry was not completely canvassed by questionnaire.³ Reports of manufacturers are supplemented by visits to factories and home workers.

Inquiries of health officers, factory inspectors, secretaries of associated charities and other agencies disclosed the existence of home industries that the questionnaire had not covered. One important industry escaped attention in the canvass of employers—the manufacture of cigars, which was found later to be among the chief of those employing home workers. Inquiry further revealed manufacturers that hired outside workers, in other unsuspected industries such as the manufacture of bolts, nuts, screws, or gas mantles. Among home industries disclosed through inquiry in the field of investigation are small manufactories not entered at all in the Industrial Directory of Pennsylvania. These are one room establish-

ments for the manufacture of wearing apparel, and the stogie shops of Pittsburgh.

Employers chiefly gave the requisite initial information in regard to home workers. As Table III shows, 230 manufacturers or their representatives were personally interviewed, from whom were secured not only the names and addresses of the home workers that they employed but knowledge concerning the conditions of employment, the supervision of outside workers, the desirability of the home work system, and the processes of manufacture. In addition the records of the licensing department of the Bureau of Health of Philadelphia furnished a further list of names and addresses, as did also the home workers that were later visited.

NUMBER OF HOME WORKERS IN PENNSYLVANIA.—The complete number of home workers in Pennsylvania in any one industry cannot be given with precision for two reasons. Replies were received from only 66 per cent of the questionnaires, and the list

TABLE III.

INDUSTRIAL FIRMS VISITED, WHO GIVE OUT HOME WORK.

Industries	Number of firms
ALL INDUSTRIES.....	230
Hosiery, knit goods.....	64
Men's clothing (coats, pants, vests).....	17
Men's clothing (shirts).....	11
Women's, children's clothing	21
Rag rugs.....	6
Tobacco.....	17
Other industries:	
Cough drops and candy eggs.....	1
Embroidered goods.....	5
Flags, banners.....	2
Gloves, other than leather.....	2
Hats, artificial flowers.....	3
Neckwear, dress and hat trimmings.....	19
Paper goods.....	12
Silk goods.....	7
Shoes, trimmings.....	7
Miscellaneous industries.....	36

of names in the Industrial Directory is by no means complete. But an enumeration of returns is indicative of the magnitude of the system in Pennsylvania. For example, 852 chief home workers are employed in the men's clothing industry in Philadelphia; 525 are in the rag carpet industry in Carlisle; 444 in the women's clothing industry, and 238 in the handkerchief and embroidery industry in Philadelphia. It is of importance to remember that, as home workers are only part time employees, the number required is much larger than if the work were done within the factory.

¹Eighty-two firms were visited in addition, who did not give out home work, 14 of which reported that they had recently discontinued the system.

So far as could be discovered the number of chief home workers in Pennsylvania, as seen in Table II, is at least 12,394. In addition there are between 3000 and 5000 home workers, engaged in the manufacture of army clothes who were not considered in this study. Of 12,394 home workers 2,850 manufacture hosiery and knit goods, 2,033, men's suits; 1,397, rag rugs; 1,051, women's and childrens clothing; 1,000, hooks and eyes and patent fasteners; 688, paper goods; 548, men's shirts (not including the manufacture of army shirts); 518, neckwear, and dress and hat trimming; 429, silk goods; 399, embroidered and lace goods; 346, tobacco (an incomplete canvass); 177, hats and artificial flowers; 162, gloves, other than leather; 138, handkerchiefs; 120, shoes and shoe trimmings; and 162, toys, sporting goods and dolls dresses. These enumerations pertain only to the chief worker. Frequently family groups carry on the processes. Therefore the actual number of home workers is larger than those that appear on a manufacturer's payroll.

Numerous other industries employ home workers, in smaller number. They include the manufacture of bags, bolts, books, brushes, chairs, cough drops and candy eggs, curtains, flags and banners, gas mantles and meters, hair goods, jewelry and silverware, lamp shades, leather gloves, metal novelties, novelty goods, razor blades, sanitary rubber goods and corsets, suspenders and garters, spectacles and spectacle cases, toilet preparations, umbrellas and parasols, and woolen goods.

HOME VISITS AND SCHEDULES.—A schedule of questions used in home visits supplied a large part of the information desired. Home workers employed in certain industries as in the manufacture of hosiery and knit goods or of men's clothing often live close to one another in districts of a large city, or in a country village near the manufacturers that employ them. This concentration of the labor supply made possible a house to house canvass in certain localities. Personal observations of the visitor extensively supplemented the answers of home workers to questions on the schedule. Some questions yielded answers corroboratory of assertions made by home workers, especially those that pertained to rate of pay and earnings, concerning which these workers usually lack definite and accurate information. This schedule used in home visits contains questions concerning the personality of the home worker, the wage contract, motives for engaging in home work, conditions of home life, family composition, and the imposition of legal restrictions.¹

From October 1916 to June 1917 schedules were gathered from 1113 workers. According to Table IV, of these home workers, 29 per cent (328) work on men's coats, trousers, vests, and shirts; 29

¹Printed in full in the appendix.

per cent (327) on hosiery and knit goods; 9 per cent (98) on tobacco; 6 per cent (66) on women's and children's garments; 5 per cent (51) on rag rugs; and the remainder, 22 per cent (243) on numerous and varied products.

TABLE IV.

HOME WORKERS VISITED, AND INDUSTRIES IN WHICH EMPLOYED.

Industries	Number of home workers
ALL INDUSTRIES.....	1113
Hosiery and knit goods.....	327
Men's clothing (coats, pants, vests).....	251
Men's clothing (shirts).....	77
Women's, children's clothing.....	66
Rag rugs.....	51
Tobacco.....	98
Other industries:	
Books.....	1
Brushes.....	2
Chairs.....	1
Cough drops, candy eggs.....	10
Curtains.....	1
Embroidered goods.....	17
Flags, banners.....	14
Gas mantles, gas meters.....	7
Gloves, other than leather.....	32
Hair goods.....	1
Handkerchiefs.....	3
Hats, artificial flowers.....	13
Hooks, eyes, patent fasteners, pearl buttons.....	4
Neckwear, dress and hat trimmings.....	20
Novelty goods.....	2
Paper goods.....	30
Sanitary rubber goods, corsets.....	1
Sheets, pillow cases.....	3
Silk goods.....	39
Shoes, trimmings.....	29
Spectacles, cases.....	1
Toilet preparations.....	1
Toys, sporting goods, dolls' dresses.....	2
Umbrellas, parasols.....	7
Woolen goods.....	2

LOCATION OF INDUSTRIES.—¹ According to the Industrial Directory, 42 per cent (91,959) of industrial women in Pennsylvania

¹In order to give an accurate picture of industrial home work in Pennsylvania, we constructed three charts on outline maps of Pennsylvania. Basing our information upon mail returns from the manufacturer we indicated, first, the number of home workers employed, according to the town or city in which they lived; second, the number of firms reported as giving out home work, according to their location in cities or towns; third, the number of firms reported as giving out home work, according to their location by counties of the state. Although the mail returns by no means represent a complete canvass of all cases, by constantly shifting the quantitative scale, with the discovery of new industries in new localities, we attempted to choose samples proportionately, representative of the number of workers, representative of the kinds of industries, representative of the localities in which an industry was established.

TABLE V.

CITIES AND TOWNS BY COUNTIES, WHERE HOME WORKERS WERE
VISITED AND INDUSTRIES IN WHICH EMPLOYED

Counties cities and towns	Number of home workers who manufacture					
	Total	Hosiery and knit goods	Men's clothing	Women's and children's clothing	Rag rugs	Other industries
ALL HOME WORKERS -----	1113	327	238	66	51	243
Allegheny County:						
Pittsburgh -----	21		2			18
Berks County:						
Hamburg* -----	5	4				1
Mohnton* -----	12	11	1			
Reading -----	136	53	15	2		7
Robesonia* -----	2	2				
Shillington* -----	1		1			
Shoemakersville* -----	5	5				
Stony Creek Mills* -----	3	1				2
Womelsdorf* -----	11	1				6
Blair County:						
Altoona -----	6			6		
Bucks County:						
Perkasie -----	6		6			
Quakertown -----	22	1	10			1
Sellersville* -----	6		5			1
Chester County						
Coatesville -----	6					6
Phoenixville -----	41	41				
Spring City -----	39	39				
West Chester -----	8					8
Clinton County:						
Lock Haven -----	7					7
Woolrich* -----	1					1
Cumberland County:						
Carlisle -----	10				10	
Meehaniesburg* -----	6	2	4			
Mount Holly Springs* -----	4		2		2	
Shippensburg -----	8		3			5
Dauphin County:						
Elizabethville* -----	9	2	4		3	
Harrisburg -----	10	8				2
Millersburg* -----	2				1	1
Erie County:						
Erie -----	7					7
Juniata County:						
Mexico* -----	2		2			
Mifflintown* -----	3				3	
Lackawanna County:						
New Holland* -----	5		2			2
Scranton -----	12					12
Lancaster County:						
Adamstown* -----	4	3				1
Columbia -----	3					3
Ephrata -----	11	4	3			3
Lancaster -----	22					12
Lebanon County:						
Lebanon -----	7	4				3
Lehigh County:						
Allentown -----	24	6	11		1	6

TABLE V—Continued.

Counties cities and towns	Number of home workers who manufacture					
	Total	Hosiery and knit goods	Men's clothing	Women's and children's clothing	Rag rugs	Other industries
Luzerne County:						
Ashley	1		1			
Wilkes-Barre	3		2	1		
Lycoming County:						
Williamsport	8		3			5
McKean County:						
Kane	3					3
Mifflin County:						
Bellville*	10				10	
Milroy*	5	5				
Montgomery County:						
Bridgeport	2	1			1	
Cedars*	2		2			
Collegeville*	6					6
Delphi*	2		2			
Grater's Ford*	7	4	3			
Green Lane*	11		3			5
Harleysville*	3		3			
Hatfield*	4		3			1
Iron Bridge*	7	1	6			
Kulpsville*	6		6			
Lansdale	11		10			1
Linfield*	3	3				
Mainland*	1		1			
Norristown	40	6			19	14
Oaks*	8					8
Perkiomenville*	3		2			1
Pottstown	2	2				
Red Hill*	2					2
Royersford	32	32				
Sehewksville*	7		4			3
Skipppack*	4		4			
Souderton*	11	2	7			1
Zieglersville*	5		5			
Northampton County:						
Easton	8					8
Nazareth	2	1				1
South Bethlehem*	2					2
Philadelphia County:						
Philadelphia	291	4	185	55	1	46
Schuylkill County:						
Auburn*	8	6	2			
Landingsville*	6	6				
Minersville	7	7				
Orwigsburg*	9	1				2
Port Carbon	3	3				
Pottsville	37	37				
Schuylkill Haven	15	15				
Tioga County:						
Gaines*	1					1
Warren County:						
Warren	13					13
York County:						
York	15	4	3	2		5

* Town of less than 2,500 inhabitants

TABLE VI.

INDUSTRIAL WORK OF HOME WORKERS WITH SIZE OF CITY OR TOWN OF HABITATION.

Industries.	Number of home workers living in cities and towns with inhabitants of								
	Total	Less than 2,500	2,500 and less than 5,000	5,000 and less than 10,000	10,000 and less than 20,000	20,000 and less than 50,000	50,000 and less than 100,000	100,000 and less than 200,000	200,000 and over
ALL INDUSTRIES, ----	1,113	214	148	18	87	130	185	43	288
Hosiery, knit goods, ---	327	59	95	7	45	47	68	-----	6
Men's clothing, (coats, pants, vests), -----	251	55	29	-----	-----	2	22	14	129
Men's clothing (shirts), ---	77	19	3	-----	-----	4	6	16	29
Women's, children's clothing, -----	66	-----	-----	-----	-----	1	9	-----	56
Rag rugs, -----	51	19	1	-----	10	19	1	-----	1
Tobacco, -----	98	20	13	-----	9	31	7	-----	18
Other industries, -----	243	42	7	11	23	26	72	13	49

TABLE VII.

INDUSTRIES GIVING OUT HOME WORK WITH SIZE OF CITY OR TOWN WHERE LOCATED.

Industries.	Number of industries in cities and towns with inhabitants of								
	Total	Less than 2,500	2,500 and less than 5,000	5,000 and less than 10,000	10,000 and less than 20,000	20,000 and less than 50,000	50,000 and less than 100,000	100,000 and less than 200,000	200,000 and over
ALL INDUSTRIES, ----	230	32	18	-----	17	28	39	-----	96
Hosiery, knit goods, ---	64	15	9	-----	6	10	16	-----	8
Men's clothing (coats, pants, vests), -----	17	5	2	-----	-----	-----	2	-----	8
Men's clothing (shirts), ---	11	1	2	-----	-----	3	3	-----	2
Women's, children's clothing, -----	21	-----	-----	-----	1	-----	-----	-----	20
Rag rugs, -----	6	-----	-----	-----	2	1	1	-----	2
Tobacco, -----	17	4	4	-----	2	6	1	-----	-----
Other industries, -----	94	7	1	-----	6	8	16	-----	56

(218,755) are in the county of Philadelphia, that is the city of Philadelphia. Seventy-eight per cent (170,109) are in Philadelphia, Berks, Lancaster, Luzerne, Lackawanna, Lehigh, York, Northampton, Montgomery, Dauphin, Delaware and Schuylkill counties. Only one county in western Pennsylvania is important, as an industrial center for women, and that is Allegheny County, with the city of Pitts-

burgh as its commercial center. In this county one finds 8 per cent (17,105) of the industrial women workers in the state.

Industrial home work follows closely the above distribution. Of 1113 home workers visited, according to Table V, 90 per cent (998) live in the eastern and southeastern part of Pennsylvania and 10 per cent (115) in the central and western part where agriculture, mining and those industries flourish in which there are relatively few industrial home workers. Table V also shows that home visits were made in 25 of 67 counties in Pennsylvania, and 80 cities and towns. As shown in Table VI, 58 per cent (646) of the home workers interviewed, live in cities of 20,000 inhabitants and more, and 42 per cent (467), in smaller cities and towns.

Of special importance is the home industry of the rural districts, since in its isolation its problems are liable to be overlooked. According to Tables VI and VII, 14 per cent (32) of the factories and 19 per cent (214) of the home workers visited are in towns of less than 2,500 inhabitants. Home workers in large numbers in Pennsylvania are country dwellers. Two illustrations will indicate the industrial situation of the country. Schuylkill Haven and Orwigsburg, in Schuylkill County,— two towns which adjoin each other, with a total population of 6,548 inhabitants, report in the Industrial Directory of Pennsylvania, 16 hosiery and knit goods industries, 13 boot and shoe factories, 5 box factories, and one cigar factory, besides ten other industries.¹ Owners of these small factories report 254 home workers. The towns of Royersford and Spring City which lie directly opposite each other on the banks of the Schuylkill river, with a total population of 5,953 inhabitants report 657 home workers.² Industries are abundant in the rural districts of southeastern Pennsylvania and a large proportion of them employ home workers.

The small country factories are often situated quite apart from either a railroad or a trolley. Frequently they bear no firm name but are known by the name of the local manager. In fact, many of them, are branch factories maintained by large firms in New York City, Philadelphia, Baltimore, and Wilmington, which avail themselves of a cheap labor supply from the farms of Pennsylvania and avoid the demands of labor organizations in cities. In general these

¹ Thirteenth Census of the United States taken in the year 1910. Abstract of the Census with Supplement for Pennsylvania, 1913. pp. 591,592.

² 1 Ibid, 1, 380 1, 384.

factories are textile mills, clothing manufactories or cigar factories, which still retain many strange survivals of old industrial systems.

Indeed, in many small towns, nearly all the married women, even the well-to-do, work either in the factory or carry on an industrial process in the home. One day, I passed a prosperous farm of fifteen acres in Montgomery County, with a house, well built of stucco. In spite of general indications of prosperity and orderliness, the woman of the household informed me that not only did she can her fruit for sale, but that she worked every day in the cigar factory, a mile away, from seven o'clock in the morning until five o'clock in the evening, with two hours off for lunch. She said that all the women in the village did industrial work, that within a radius of a few miles, there were five cigar factories, a silk factory at the edge of the village, and a nearby tailoring establishment, all of which gave out home work. She declared that even the women that worked in the factory go home each night a mile or more with a sack of tobacco to keep the family busy with stripping at odd times. She spoke with much pride of her friend, who, with all her housework, at home had picked in two weeks, 32 pieces of silk, of 85 yards each. I visited one household in which the mother had three children, and kept two boarders. She went to the cigar factory each day to strip tobacco and returned each night with a load of tobacco leaves for her family. In the meantime her husband did the house work and odd jobs in the village, and worked steadily for only six months in the year at the ice house. The postmaster of one small village declared that the "women of the town like to help out the men," that all of them assist in the manufacture of cigars and cigar boxes, either in the factory or in the home. He said that the town had been a tumbled-down village, until firms from outside the state came and built two cigar factories. All the women then went to work and transformed a village of old shacks into a model town.

CHAPTER II.

EVOLUTION OF INDUSTRIAL HOME WORK IN PENNSYLVANIA WITH
A DEFINITION OF THE SYSTEM.

CLASSIFICATION OF INDUSTRIAL SYSTEMS.—Industrial home work in Pennsylvania today is an antiquated form of industry that appears in part in modern methods of manufacture under a factory system, but that exists occasionally in its original individual form.

Confusion has arisen in the application of the term "industrial home work," but Carl Bücher's terminology for industrial systems may be of assistance. He has defined five of them, which follow in historical succession:¹

1. Domestic Work (Hauswerk).
2. Wage Work (Lohnwerk).
3. Hand Work or Handicraft (Handwerk).
4. Industrial Home Work or the Commission System (Hausindustrie or the Verlagssystem).
5. Factory Work (Fabrik).

The earlier forms of industry are domestic work, wage work and handicraft. Domestic work is production in the home by members of the household for the family needs from raw material furnished from the household itself. Wage work is production for wages on consumer's goods, by a worker who is not a member of the household. Hand work or handicraft is production by the possessor of the raw material and the means of manufacture, who sells for a definite price the finished article directly to a locally limited circle of customers, who are the consumers of the product. These systems of industry in mixed and distinct forms were the dominant methods of production in Pennsylvania until nearly the period of the Revolution, survivals of which even now exist.

Industrial home work or the commission system,—the forerunner of our modern factory system, is production for a business manager with capital, who assumes control of the marketing of the product, and permits manufacture to take place in homes and workshops apart from his place of business. The product is a source of profits to himself and perhaps one or more middlemen. The removal of the producer from the direct sale of his product and from a knowledge of the market is the essential feature of industrial home work.

¹ *Handwörterbuch der Staatswissenschaften*, article "Gewerbe," III Band, pp. 922-950.

Bücher, Carl, *Die Entstehung der Volkswirtschaft*, 1906,

Chapter IV. Die gewerblichen Betriebssysteme in ihrer geschichtlichen Entwicklung, pp. 151-186.

This system of industry, with the previous systems, in mixed and distinct forms, was the dominant method of production in Pennsylvania during the industrial revolution of England up to 1809 or 1810.

Factory work,—our modern method of manufacture, is production in a special establishment provided by a business manager, who not only markets the product but controls the process of production by the ownership of the raw material, the tools, and the machinery used in manufacture. A factory system furthermore implies the effective utilization of labor by a subdivision of work, brought about by the use of power machines. The new organization of labor necessitates manufacture on a large scale, requires a considerable capital, and results in the economic dependence of workmen. This system of industry is now the dominant method of production in Pennsylvania beginning in a primitive form about 1809 or 1810, and ever gaining a stronger and stronger foothold.

Industrial home work, as considered in this study, has a broader significance than the system defined by Carl Bücher, since many industries effectively organized under the factory system now avail themselves of industrial home work. *It may be defined as production of any kind, either a whole or a part process, carried on for a manufacturer, merchant, or contractor, by persons that do not work on the business premises of their employers. They may work in their own homes, or in rooms or workshops, other than their own homes which they have provided at their own expense.*

Included in the study of industrial home work is the stogie industry of Pittsburgh and of western Pennsylvania. One cannot clearly designate this manufacture as industrial home work, since it exhibits varied and mixed forms, between handicraft, industrial home work and the factory system. The stogie maker has, in general, remained an independent producer. He possesses the raw material, the tools and all the requisites of manufacture. Production is the result of his own labor, that of his family or that of hired helpers, and takes place in his own home, or in a workshop provided by him. He may dispose of his wares in various ways. He may sell them in his shop over a counter to his own customers. Therein, he is a handicraftsman. He may peddle his wares at small shops, grocery stores, hotels, saloons, or turn them over to a jobber, who sells them on commission, or he may bargain independently with merchants and factory owners. This production then becomes a means of profit for one more intermediaries, and belongs to the capitalistic system, but these middle-men do not control the production. The stogie maker manages his own business. Only, in rare cases, does a factory owner or a merchant employ the stogie

maker definitely by paying him a stipulated price for a certain amount of labor, as in true industrial home work. Hence the manufacture of stogies in houses is not properly industrial home work as defined by Carl Bücher.

INDUSTRY IN THE EARLY SETTLEMENT.—Domestic work, wage work and handicraft prevailed in the early settlement of Pennsylvania. Industrial home work did not appear till the close of the colonial period. In their *History of Philadelphia*, Scharf and Westcott describe the settlement of New Sweden in 1663. There were eighty sheep in this community. From wool and flax the housewives wove enough linen and woolen cloth, which, they manufactured into garments, bedding and table linen. The men of the family tanned leather for their boots.¹ Domestic work, in which members of the family supplied all their own needs, was the prevalent system of manufacture. A few years after William Penn founded Philadelphia, he established fairs to furnish a ready market for the household products of his people, especially products of wool and linen.² The handicraftsmen (such as the blacksmith, the carpenter, the cooper, the shoemaker, the tailor, and the hat maker), first hired out as an itinerant wage worker and later established himself in a shop, producing goods made from the raw material of the customer and then from his own. In 1698 a writer of Pennsylvania enumerates 57 handicrafts which had developed in Philadelphia.³ The handicraftsman and the woman in her home were the industrial workers in colonial Pennsylvania.

This city with the surrounding country affords the example of a locality specializing in a handicraft that has developed into an important industry of Pennsylvania. As early as 1723, "Matthew Borne of Chester County served John Caman in stocking weaving."⁴ In 1760 a traveller writes: "The Germantown thread stockings are in high estimation; and the year before last, I have been credibly informed, there were manufactured in that town alone above 60,000 dozen pairs."⁵

¹Scharf, J. Thomas, and Westcott, Thompson, *History of Philadelphia*, 1884, Vol. I, p. 140.

²Bishop, J. Leander, *A History of American Manufactures from 1608 to 1860*, 1864, Vol. I, p. 315.

³Thomas, Gabriel, *An Historical and Geographical Account of the Province and Country of Pennsylvania and West New Jersey in America*, 1698, pp. 28-32.

⁴*Manufactures of the United States in 1860, compiled from the original returns of the Eight Census, 1865*, p. XLII, quoted from Bradford's *American Weekly Mercury*, 1723.

⁵Burnaby, Andrew, *Travels through the Middle Settlements in North America in the years 1759 and 1760*, 1798 p. 63.

INDUSTRY AFTER THE REVOLUTION.—At the end of the eighteenth century in Pennsylvania, manufacture in shops and mills had partly taken industry out of the homes into separate establishments. Tench Coxe, the eminent Philadelphian of Revolutionary days writes in 1787 of the marvelous development of American manufactures:

“Under all the disadvantages which have attended manufactures and the useful arts it must afford the most comfortable reflection to every patriotic mind, to observe their progress in the United States, and particularly in Pennsylvania. For a long time after our forefathers sought an establishment in this place, then a dreary wilderness, everything necessary for their simple wants, was the work of european hands. How great—how happy is the change! The list of articles, we now make ourselves, if particularly enumerated, would fatigue the ear, and waste your valuable time.”¹

Paralleling the establishment of the shop was that of the mill. Tench Coxe describes some of these earliest industries, which took production out of the home:

“By wind and water machines we can make pig and bar iron, nail rods, tire, sheet-iron, sheet-copper, sheet-brass, anchors, meals of all kinds, gun-powders, writing, printing, and hanging paper, snuff, linseed oil, boards, plank and scantling; and they assist us in finishing scythes, sickles, and woolen cloths. * * * * * One mill of Ramsay’s the improvement on Barker’s, near Philadelphia, grinds by water, chocolate, flour, snuff, hair powder, and mustard, and shells chocolate nuts; it also presses and cuts tobacco for chewing and smoking, and boulds meal.* * * * *By fire we conduct our breweries, distilleries, salt and potash works, sugar houses, potteries, casting and steel animal and vegetable oils and refining drugs.”²

The American system of manufacture of the household and of the workshop, was often carried on in unison with agriculture, as Tench Coxe describes in 1794:

“Those of the tradesmen and manufacturers, who live in the country, generally reside on small lots and farms, from one acre to twenty; and not a few upon farms from twenty to one hundred and fifty acres; which they cultivate at leisure times, with their own hands, their wives, children, servants, and apprentices, and sometimes by hired labourers or by letting out fields, for a part of the produce, to some neighbor, who has time or farm hands not fully employed. This union of manufactures and farming is found to be very convenient on the grain farms, but it is still more convenient on the grazing and grass farms, where parts of almost every day, and a great part of every year, can be spared from the business of the farm, and employed in some mechanical, handy-craft, or manufacturing business. These persons often make domestic and farming carriages, implements, and utensils, build houses and barns, tan leather, and manufacture hats, shoes, hosiery, cabinet-work, and other

¹Coxe, Tench, *View of the United States of America*, 1794, p. 45.

²Ibid., p. 39.

articles of clothing and furniture, to the great convenience and advantage of the neighborhood. In like manner some of the farmers, at leisure times and proper seasons, manufacture nails, pot-ash, pearl-ash, staves and heading, hoops and handspikes, axe-handles, maple-sugar."¹

In this period following the Revolution manufacture was largely in the hands of women and children, and here first appeared a system of industrial home work and the creation of that form of establishment known as a manufactory, which combined work in the shop with work in the home. There arose at this time and at a later period a prevalent opinion that manufacturing employments were injurious to the best interests of the country, as diverting labor from agriculture. Tench Coxe points out that these objections are not valid; that these manufacturing employments are a source of a national wealth, being largely in the hands of women and children:

"The objection that manufactures take the people from agriculture, is not solid as elsewhere observed; since women, children, horses, water, and fire, all work at manufactures and perform four-fifths of the labour; and as many manufacturers migrate to the United States, it may be fairly asserted, that the quantity of agricultural industry is increased by the impulse and demand arising from manufactures. It may be reasonably asked, whether a farmer do not raise the more cotton, flax, hemp, and wool, because his wife and daughters spin and weave them, or because a water-work spins for them?"²

As manufacture was in the hands of women and children at the beginning of our industrial evolution, it is not strange that it continued in their hands during the transition into a factory system.

While Philadelphia and its vicinity was ready for the transfer of manufacture into the new stage of factory production, western Pennsylvania remained long in the early stages of industry. Economic isolation forced household and workshop manufacture upon these people. They had no market for their wares, and therefore it became necessary for each community to be self-supporting. Tench Coxe advocates the opening up of the western lands by improved means of transportation:

"Although Philadelphia and Lake Erie are distant from each other above three hundred miles, there is no doubt that the rivers of the state may be so improved, as to reduce the land carriage between them nine-tenths. In the same way the navigation to Pittsburgh, after due improvement may be used instead of land carriage,

¹ Coxe, Tench, *View of the United States of America*, 1794, pp. 442-443.

² *Ibid.*, p. 301.

for the whole distance except twenty or thirty miles. By these routes it is clear that a large proportion of foreign articles, used on the western waters, will be transported; and that their furs, skins, ginseng, hemp, flax, pot-ash and other valuable commodities, may be brought to Philadelphia."¹

There was no uniformity of transition of manufacture to a factory system. The period of time varied with different industries in the same locality, and with the same industry in different localities.

The invention of machinery made possible the establishment of the factory. About 1760 began the great industrial revolution in England, which transformed the textile trade and all other industries, as well as home life and social conditions. Our progress in adopting these new industrial methods was very slow. England desired a monopoly on her inventions. A British law enacted in 1774 declares that "if any person exports tools or utensils which are commonly used in the cotton or linen manufactures, or any parts of such tools or utensils, he shall not only forfeit the same, but also two hundred pounds."² Tench Coxe at his own expense made a contract with an English mechanic to secure a model of an Arkwright machine. In 1788 officials seized the models on the point of being shipped and placed the agent under arrest.³ Lack of the requisite machinery retarded the growth of the factory system in America.

In spite of England's attempt to keep these improvements at home some of them made their way to Pennsylvania. Tench Coxe writes in 1790:

"The manufactures of Pennsylvania have increased exceedingly within a few years, as well by master workmen and journey-men from abroad, as by the increased skill and industry of our citizens. Household or family manufactures have greatly advanced; and valuable acquisitions have been made of implements and machinery to save labour, either imported or invented in the United States. The hand machines for carding and spinning cotton have been introduced by foreigners and improved. . . . We have also the movements and complete machinery of sir Richard Arkwright's water-mill for spinning yarns of cotton."⁴

But with the legal restrictions of England upon exportation, the settlers of Pennsylvania were slow to adopt new and improved machinery.

TRANSITION OF INDUSTRY INTO A FACTORY SYSTEM.—

The manufactory, with its use of industrial home work, was the forerunner of the factory. A progressive weaver would install several looms in his workshop, for which the mothers and daughters of the

¹Coxe, Tench, *View of the United States of America*, 1794, p. 60.

²Bishop, J. Leander, *A History of American Manufactures from 1608 to 1860*, 1864. Vol. I. p. 378.

³Bagnall, William R., *The Textile Industries of the United States*, 1893, p. 75.

⁴Coxe, Tench, *View of the United States of America*, 1794, pp. 64, 69.

neighborhood would spin yarn at home. This widespread use of industrial home work by manufactories had its crude beginnings when the housewife first disposed of household products either at the village store, or with a commission merchant who bought yarn and sold it or put it out again to be woven.

Historical documents have records of a number of these manufactories in Philadelphia. The distributing of work to homes from these establishments was a favorite method of relieving poverty. About 1764 an association in Philadelphia bought raw materials for the manufacture of coarse linen, in order to employ people that needed work. Spinning and weaving by hand power occupied one hundred outside and inside workers.¹ Furthermore the manufacture of hosiery occupied other women. In 1766 in the *Pennsylvania Gazette* appeared the following advertisement:

"Daniel Mause Hoiser, at the sign of the Hand, In Hand Stocking Manufactory on the west side of Second Street, between Race and Vine Streets, takes this method of informing the Public, That he has lately erected a Number of Looms, for the manufacture of Thread and Cotton Stockings and other kinds of Hosiery of any Size or Quality, hoping the good People of this and the neighboring Provinces will encourage this, his undertaking, at a Time when America calls for the endeavors of her Sons; and, as the goodness of the Pennsylvania Made Stockings is so well known and so universally esteemed, said Mause will work up Thread, Cotton, Worsted, Yarn, etc., in the best manner for the Country Gentleman, or others, who may be pleased to employ him for a moderate satisfaction. He gives the best prices for Thread, Cotton, Worsted, and Yarn, of the Produce and Manufacture of America only. The above Person, from his Experience and Travels in Quest of Improvement, with Intent of establishing a respectable Manufactory in Philadelphia presumes to offer his services, as above, steadily determined to work well and at the most reasonable Rates."²

The production of cloth in manufactories continued during the English industrial revolution before the adoption of the new methods of manufacture in this country. The manufacture of hosiery continued for a considerably longer period.

The last of the large manufactories in Philadelphia for the production of linen cloth was that of a joint stock company established in 1775, known as the United Company of Philadelphia for Promoting American Manufactures. In the *Pennsylvania Packet and General Advertiser* appeared the following advertisement:

"To the good women of this province. As the spinning of yarn is a great part of the business in cloth manufacture, in these countries where they are carried on extensively and to the best advantage, the women of the whole country are employed as much as possible. The managers of the American Manufactory in this city, being

¹Bagnall, William R., *The Textile Industries of the United States*, 1893 p. 51.

²*Ibid.*, p. 55.

desirous to extend the circle of this part of their business, wish to employ every good spinner that can apply, however remote from the factory, and, as many women in the country may supply themselves with the materials there, and may have leisure to spin considerable quantities, they are hereby informed that ready money will be given at the factory, up Market street, for any parcel, either great or small, of hemp, flax, or woollen yarn. The managers return their thanks to all these industrious women who are now employed in spinning for the factory. The skill and diligence of many entitles them to the public acknowledgement. We hope that, as you have begun, so you will go on, and never weary in well doing.”¹

The capture and occupation of Philadelphia by the British Army caused the cessation of the business of this company, since its managers had to flee from the city.

After the Revolution in 1787 a company known as the Pennsylvania Society for the Encouragement of Arts and Domestic Manufactures established a new business in the old quarters of the United Company of Philadelphia. This company, of which Tench Coxe was a later president, purchased a quantity of flax and set between 200 and 300 women at work spinning linen yarn. They installed a carding machine, four spinning jennies and a loom within a year, and gradually increased the number of looms to 26, using horse power to operate some of their machines. In less than two years they had woven 11,367 yards of different fabrics,—jeans, corduroys, bird’s eye, plain and flowered cotton, flax liuens, and tow-linens. But in 1790 a fire destroyed this thriving manufactory. The following item appears in the chronological tables of the time:

“About 11 at night the Calico manufactory at the Southwest corner of Market and 9th Streets, Philadelphia, adjoining Peter Markoe’s house, then called the ‘upper end of Market Street,’ now No. 332, was entirely destroyed by fire, with a quantity of good machinery.”

As Samuel Slater was now successfully operating his cotton mill with improved machinery run by water power, in Providence, Rhode Island, the possibility of use of similar equipment prevented the rebuilding of the more primitive calico manufactory.²

Manufacturers gradually applied these new methods of production to many other than textile industries. But the concentration of industries into factories came slowly. Manufactories and workshops, of which there are numerous survivals to this day, continued to exist side by side with the new factories.. Manufacturers also carried over from the manufactories to the factories the use of a system of industrial home work. Each industry has had its own peculiar evolu-

¹Bagnall, William R., *The Textile Industries of the United States*, 1893, p. 71.

²*Ibid.*, pp. 73-79.

tion in which home work has disappeared, or has reappeared in a new form, or has persisted in certain phases of the industry.

THE TEXTILE INDUSTRY.—As early as 1824 there were 33 cotton and woolen factories in Philadelphia and its vicinity.¹ These establishments were spinning mills and their product was yarn and not cloth. Yet both hand spinning and weaving continued a number of years after the introduction of steam power and improved machinery in their initial application to spinning. Thus Matthew Carey in 1829 complains of the poor wages paid to spoolers that work at home.² As late as 1859 Edwin T. Freedley describes Philadelphia as the great seat of hand-loom manufacturing and weaving in America. He writes of the method of production of that day:

“The material is furnished by manufacturers, and the weavers are paid by the yard. The weaving is done in the houses of the operatives; or in some cases a manufacturer, as he may be termed, has 10 or 12 looms in a wooden building attached to his dwelling, and employs journeymen weavers—the employed in some instances boarding and lodging in the same house as their employer. Throughout parts of the city, especially that formerly known as Kensington, the sound of these looms may be heard at all hours,—in garrets, cellars and out-houses, as well as in the weavers’ apartments.”³

To-day picking silk is the process most often assigned to women in their homes. In isolated cases far from the city women may carry home rolls of woolen cloth to be examined for imperfections and to be mended. But few manufacturers of textiles now employ a system of home work, because the use of machinery has made it impracticable.

THE HOSIERY INDUSTRY.—The manufacture of hosiery in Pennsylvania developed more slowly from home industry into a factory system than that of textiles. A pamphlet published in 1804 complains of the lack of facilities for the marketing of hosiery even in Philadelphia:

“There is no other market for the Germantown hosiery but what is brought in three or four baskets to the gutter, at the corner of Second Street. Formerly an eligible stand was assigned them; but, the trade every year getting more and more insignificant, they were obliged to abandon that situation and give way to the venders of ginger-bread, confectioneries, etc., manufactories which minister more immediately to the wants of agriculture. In short, if it had not been that the present administration have purchased these stockings for the use of the army, half the frames in Germantown must have been unemployed. Our information on this business is so correct as to enable us boldly to pronounce that, if no further encouragement be given to the Germantown stocking business, it will die away with

¹Freedley, Edwin T., *Philadelphia and Its Manufacturers*, 1859, p. 247.

²“Effects of the Anti-Commercial Policy,” *The Free Trade Advocate and Journal of Political Economy*, April 4, 1829, pp. 218, 219.

³Freedley, Edwin T., *Philadelphia and Its Manufacturers*, 1859, p. 253.

the old Dutchmen that are employed in it. Isaac Rouche indeed sends a few goods up the country, but not one-tenth of what he formerly did."¹

But the manufacture of hosiery did not die out in Pennsylvania. An historian writes in 1859:

"Even in the fifties the hand loom weaving of hosiery was an important business in Philadelphia. The actual weaving seems to have been done by men but it afforded employment to a large number of females, who sew and finish the various articles after they leave the frame; and thus at leisure hours add to the income and comforts of their families. The manufacture as at present conducted, is essentially a domestic one. In Germantown, in which the production is so large as to give its name to the goods produced, there are a few extensive mills employing steam-power; but the distinctive feature of the business is its hand-loom and its domesticity. Fully one half the persons engaged in the production have no practical concern with the ten-hour system, or the factory system, or even the solar system. They work at such hours as they choose in their own homes and their industry is mainly regulated by the state of the larder. But the inherent, natural industry of this class of operatives, who are largely Leicester and Nottingham men will be inferred from a visit to Germantown, and practical observation of the neatness of the dwellings, and the air of comfort that pervades all its streets and avenues."²

By 1860 Philadelphia was the largest producer of manufactured hosiery in the country, but concentration in the factory had only then begun. With an allied production of a variety of knit goods, especially underwear, manufacturers have since 1860 effectively organized their industry in factories. Under this organization home work has reappeared but primarily in the finishing of machine made articles of clothing.

THE MEN'S CLOTHING INDUSTRY—The manufacture of men's clothing, and of special articles of men's apparel in Pennsylvania continued long in houses, workshops, and manufactories without any movement toward factory production. A sweating system in the men's clothing industry existed before the advent of the sewing machine in 1850, at the very beginning of the ready made clothing industry. Matthew Carey in 1829 describes distressing conditions of labor of seamstresses in their homes.³ After the invention of the sewing machine many small establishments merged into large wholesale establishments for the manufacture and sale of ready made clothing. The women continued to work in their homes much as they had done before. The census of 1860 describes the method of production:

¹Bagnall, William R., *The Textile Industries of the United States*, 1893, p. 362.

²Freedley, Edwin T., *Philadelphia and its Manufacturers*, 1859, pp. 254, 255, 242.

³"Low Rates of Females' Wages." "Effects of the Anti-Commercial Policy." *Free Trade Advocate and Journal of Political Economy*, March 14, 1829, p. 175, April 14, 1829, pp. 218, 219.

"The sewing machine has now been extensively employed in the business for several years and has given a vast impetus to the trade. It has done this not only by cheapening the cost of production, but by enabling the manufacturer to turn out his work with greater rapidity, and thus accommodate his stocks to the peculiar state of the market. As many sewing women also possess themselves of these machines, they are enabled to counterbalance any reduction in the price of work by its increased amount. Others are by the same means, enabled to live in the country, or at a distance from the crowded avenues of the city, and yet to receive and return at stated times, a larger amount of work than they could turn out with the needle."¹

Exploitation of workers continued. An historian of the period writes:

"The prices paid to employees, it is true, are not a very munificent remuneration for labor; but by respectable Clothiers no advantage is taken of the necessities of the helpless. Exceptional cases there undoubtedly are, in which the poor are oppressed; but we are convinced Clothiers have business principles of humanity, and that the females they employ are paid reasonably fair prices."²

Certain sub-divisions of the men's ready made clothing industry were by 1860 distinct branches,—the manufacture of boy's clothing, shirts, collars, and bosoms. These branches of the industry attained a rapid development after the invention of the sewing machine. An historian of the period commends the invention, declaring that "hand needle work would be totally incapable of meeting the demand," and that the machine * * * * * relieves females of the most laborious, unhealthy, and least lucrative portion of the work.³ After 1870, inventions used by cutters and pressers, and special machine attachments including the electric motor, caused a movement of production out of the workshop and manufactory into the factory.

In this industry more than in any other home work persists under unique forms of organization. "Out and out" production of ready made and of custom made suits and shirts, except for the cutting and the final pressing, still occupies home workers in Pennsylvania. Moreover the factory has adopted the methods of the workshop and the manufactory in hiring home workers, thousands of whom finish men's suits, shirts, neckties, and other articles of clothing. Furthermore, factories carry on production in unison not only with contract shops, but, peculiarly in this industry, with sub-contract shops, both of which represent various stages in industrial evolution.

THE WOMEN'S AND CHILDREN'S CLOTHING INDUSTRY.—The manufacture of women's ready made clothing did not begin in

¹*Manufacturers of the United States in 1860, compiled from the original returns of the Eight Census, 1865, pp. LXV, LIX.*

²Freedley, Edwin T., *Philadelphia and its Manufacturers*, 1859, pp. 220, 221,

³*Ibid.*, pp. 224.

Pennsylvania until after the invention of the sewing machine, and that of children's wear, until much later. Movement into the factory is even more recent. In the early period, the prevalent system of manufacture of women's and children's clothing, if not production by members of the family for their own need, was that of the wage worker, or occasionally that of the custom dressmaker. An historian in 1859 enumerates among the articles of ready made clothing manufactured in Philadelphia, ladies' cloaks and mantillas, but he adds in explanation. "Cloaks and mantillas, as a wholesale business, dates its introduction into this country within the last ten years."¹ The lack of standardized clothing has retarded the movement into the factory. It is but a few decades ago, about 1880, that production moved into the factory. Women's coats, suits, and tailored shirts, and women's and children's undergarments are now the principal products of its manufacture.

In this industry more than others, is found a retarded industrial development,—all the old systems of wage work, custom work, and commission work, and production in the home by members of the family for their own consumption, being now in popular use. A recent development is the manufactory which cuts out women's or children's dresses, or children's coats, and occasionally undergarments, and gives them to home workers to be made "out and out." The production of these garments may be wholly within, or partly within, and partly without an establishment in a stage or transition midway between the production in a manufactory and a factory, ever tending toward the latter, with the introduction of a standardized article of clothing. When articles have become standardized, factories in their production only occasionally have adopted a system of home work, for the use of power machines with special attachments which exclude hand work, has made home work impracticable. But at the same time these factories often ally themselves with contract shops, more primitively organized, which continue to carry on this less efficient production of home work.

THE BOOT AND SHOE INDUSTRY.—The manufacture of ready made boots and shoes in Pennsylvania did not begin until about the time of the Revolution, and was exclusively men's work. But as early as 1829 Mathew Carey describes "distressing conditions" of under payment among women in this industry.² Previous to this time, shoemakers established in small shops as "team workers" started to stock up with shoes of standard sizes and shapes. They gave out uppers to women and children in their homes to be stitched

¹Freedley, Edwin T., *Philadelphia and its Manufacturers*, 1859, p. 225

²"Effects of the Anti-Commercial Policy." *Free Trade Advocate and Journal of Political Economy*, April 14, 1829, pp. 218, 219.

and bound. After 1852 when the sewing machine came into use for the stitching of uppers these women still continued their old occupation. An historian in 1859 writes of the boot and shoe industry: "The work is cut out in the establishment, and given out to the men who work at their homes....In addition to these, there are a large number,.....'garret bosses' who employ from one to twelve men each"....These men in turn give out gaiter uppers to women so that "the manufacture of gaiter uppers has become a distinct branch and gives employment to hundreds of females."¹

The Census of 1860 declares that the boot and shoe industry is "daily assuming the characteristics of a factory system... being conducted in large establishments of several stories, each floor devoted to a separate part of the work, with aid of steam power. It is safe to predict that this change will go on until the little workshop of the shoemaker, with its 'bench and kit' shall become a thing of the past, as the 'Hand card' and the great and little spinning wheel has disappeared from other branches of the clothing trade."²

The workshop as well as the manufactory has today almost disappeared from the ready made boot and shoe industry. Production continues under the factory system only, and with the improvement of machinery, the use of home work has rapidly declined until to-day it is scarcely to be found in the industry.

THE CIGAR INDUSTRY.—The manufacture of cigars has remained extensively a production of small shops. An historian in 1859 writes:

"My opinion is, there are about 1000 cigar manufacturers in Philadelphia, thirty of whom employ from ten to sixty-five hands; the others from one to five or six....the largest factory employs sixty-five hands....Machines have not as yet been found to work well."³

In 1910 there was an average of only 14 employees in each establishment of Pennsylvania—a slight increase above the average of 11 employees in the report of the previous Census.⁴

It is probable that these workshops of 1859 were similar to those that now exist in Pittsburgh for the manufacture of stogies. The workshop is a part of a living room or a separate room in the house or a shed back of the house, where production is sometimes in the hands of outsiders, but often in those of a family group of young or grown up children. It is also probable that these early owners of workshops, like those of to-day, were independent producers, since

¹Freedley, Edwin T., *Philadelphia and its Manufacturers*, 1859, pp. 187-188.

²*Manufacturers of the United States in 1860, compiled from the original returns of the Eighth Census*, 1865, p. LXXII.

³Freedley, Edwin T., *Philadelphia and its Manufacturers*, p. 389.

⁴Thirteenth Census of the United States taken in the year 1910, Abstract of the Census with Supplement for Pennsylvania, 1913, p. 715.

with a mere pittance of capital a cigar maker can engage in business. Although in the seventies Bohemian women of New York City carried on a large production of cigars in their tenement houses under outside masters, records do not tell us of a similar production in Pennsylvania.

The factory system does not begin until about 1888 when women operators, who ran machines took the place of hand cigar makers that were on a strike in Philadelphia.² Suction tables and bunching, stripping, and booking machines have carried the industry out of workshops into factories. However, even factory owners in Pennsylvania have to-day quite universally adopted a system of home work by giving out tobacco leaves to be stripped, or occasionally by giving out cigar boxes to be labelled.

With these distinctive features in the evolution of various industries, production in Pennsylvania has passed through the various stages as defined by Carl Bucher. It has passed from domestic work to wage work, handicraft, industrial home work, and factory work, with numerous intermixed forms. But industrial home work has taken on certain characteristics of the factory system which makes it less favorable by far to the worker than in its original form under the commission system.

¹Abbott, Edith, *Women in Industry*, 1910, pp. 196-201.

²*Ibid*, p. 202.

CHAPTER III

HOME WORKERS

MARITAL STATUS, SEX, AND AGE, OF WORKERS.—It is usually married women, who manufacture industrial products in their homes under the factory system. Of the home workers interviewed in the study of Industrial Home Work in Pennsylvania, according to Table VIII, 96 per cent (1064) are female, and of those reporting (1032) 71 per cent (732) are married, 19 per cent (197) are widowed, divorced, or deserted, and 10 per cent (103) are single. The married or widowed woman often works upon industrial processes in her home rather than in the factory merely from the habit, intensified by years, of being at home. She dreads the regularity of factory life. "The noise of the machinery makes her nervous." She likewise often labors in her house, because her family cannot spare her. The duties of motherhood compel her presence, and permit only the performance of industrial labor in the interim of the work of the household. To be sure production for the market often overlaps or crowds out domestic responsibilities to the neglect of the house and the children.

The single woman usually labors in her home rather than in the factory, because of her own physical incapacity, or because of the care of feeble parents. Occasionally it may be because her family do not consider the life of the factory in keeping with their standards. One unmarried home worker makes silk dresses for a factory in her bedroom. She is sure that "her lungs are half gone." A second, in order to make a living, manufactures beaded buckles while she care for a feeble old mother. A third, who tacks American flags on staves, reports: "I prefer to stay at home, because I do not have to get up so early in the morning, and I can do little things for myself at odd times. Besides the girls in the factory are not of my class."

Home work is usually the occupation of older women. According to Table VIII, of those reporting (1032), 78 per cent (803) are above 30 years of age, 43 per cent (445) are above 40 years, 22 per cent (226) are above 50 years, and 10 per cent (104) are above 60 years. With the advance of age factory owners gradually assign these women the more and more simple processes. An Italian woman, 85 years of age, cuts and sews rags for carpets. A former coat maker, 78 years of age, whose eyes have given out in the more skilled trade with the needle, strips tobacco. At the other extreme of the age groups, although exceptional cases, are the young girls below the legal age for factory employment who take out bundles of under-vests to be taped, or pearl buttons to be carded, in order to earn spending money, or to contribute to the family income.

Of the small proportion of men, who do home work, the majority are stogie makers of Pittsburgh, or custom tailors of the large cities, who have set aside rooms in their homes as workshops. Most of the male home workers in other industries are mentally or physically incapacitated. These unfortunate men,—the old, the blind, the paralytic, the cripple, the feeble-minded, eke out a livelihood by stripping tobacco, making brushes or brooms, ravelling defective stockings, sewing buttons on shoes, or putting cane bottoms in chairs.

TABLE VIII

AGE, SEX AND MARITAL STATUS OF HOME WORKERS

Age Groups	Number of home workers of specified age							
	Total*		Married		Widowed Divorced Deserted		Single	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
NUMBER REPORTING	47	1032	35	732	3	197	9	103
Under 20 years		28		9		1		18
20 years and under 30	6	201	1	164		10	5	27
30 years and under 40	11	358	9	285		46	2	27
40 years and under 50	10	219	10	156	1	60		13
50 years and under 60	13	122	10	75	2	40	2	7
60 years and under 70	6	68	4	32		29		7
70 years and under 80	1	32	1	8		20		4
80 years and over		4		3		1		

* Not reported 2 males, 32 females

NATIVITY OF WORKERS.—Contrary to the usual opinion, a large proportion of home workers in Pennsylvania are native Americans. As shown in Table IX, 75 per cent (820) of those reporting (1098) are born in the United States. Many of the native home workers are of German decent. Living in the isolated rural communities of the state, they still retain the dialect of their forefathers and speak English with difficulty.

Immigrant home workers are in the minority. The Italians,—13 per cent (146) of those reporting, form the largest group of foreigners. In the cities they are the finishers of men's ready made clothing. Many of them also cut and sew rags for carpets. The largest number of other immigrants work in the tobacco industry. They are chiefly engaged in the simple process of tobacco stripping. An exceptional group,—chiefly Austrian, Roumanian, and Russian Jews, are the owners of the stogie house factories of Pittsburgh.

CASUAL CHARACTER OF EMPLOYMENT.—Many women work at home casually. They perform their industrial labor with little systematic effort, at odd moments snatched from their household duties. Days, weeks, months, may pass without industrial labor in the home, but when a need arises,—when the family requires groceries or desires a phonograph, the home is suddenly transformed into a

factory. According to Table X, of those reporting (848) only 41 per cent (351) estimate that they are busy eleven or twelve months during the year, while 25 per cent (215) say that they work less than six months.

TABLE IX
NATIVITY OF HOME WORKERS

Place of birth	Number of home workers
NUMBER REPORTING	1098*
United States (white) -----	804
United States (negro) -----	16
Italy ¹ -----	146
Germany -----	29
Austria Hungary -----	28
Russia -----	22
Ireland -----	17
Great Britain -----	10
Roumania -----	8
All other countries -----	18

* Not reported 15

¹ 110 of the Italians are finishers of men's clothing.

TABLE X
LENGTH OF EMPLOYMENT OF HOME WORKERS
DURING LAST TWELVE MONTHS

Estimated months spent at home work	Number of home workers
NUMBER REPORTING	948*
Less than 1 month -----	57
1 month and less than 2 -----	43
2 months and less than 3 -----	26
3 months and less than 4 -----	44
4 months and less than 5 -----	24
5 months and less than 6 -----	21
6 months and less than 7 -----	57
7 months and less than 8 -----	33
8 months and less than 9 -----	36
9 months and less than 10 -----	69
10 months and less than 11 -----	87
11 months and less than 12 -----	203
12 months -----	148

* Not reported 265

A manufacturer of men's shirts reports concerning the irregularity of the employment of women at home: "I have about eight outside workers off and on. Two of them only work now and then and two of them work about four months. Four of them worked regularly, through the last year, during their spare time." In house cleaning season one factory owner declares that the home workers employed upon industrial work are but half the usual number, although there is no shortage of work in the factory. Sickness or an insufficient need for steady application, as well as household cares, gives rise to this irregularity of industrial employment.

Lack of permanency of employment may be traced to another source. The manufacturer may distribute his work, either at incalculable intervals of time or at certain seasons. A taper of underwear explains this irregularity of employment: "The firm makes more winter than summer underwear, and only gives out work about six months in the year. That is why it pays a higher price than the other mill. But many workers prefer the lower rate of pay, because they get work all the year." Another taper of underwear declares: "During the winter the factory was not as busy as it now is and no one could get more than ten dozen shirts every other day. Now ten dozen garments are the minimum amount that we may have at a time and the factory owner wants us to take more." A stripper of tobacco complains: "At some seasons I get three boxes of tobacco from Friday night to Sunday. Now I do not get any after Thursday."

The manufacturer often adopts a system of home work for the very reason that he can expand and curtail his business at will, with the fluctuation of trade. A manufacturer of hosiery declares: "Work is only given to home workers when our mill workers are unable to do all of it. The 'firsts' are mended and folded inside and the 'seconds' also, if there are enough of workers." A manufacturer of men's clothing says: "We do not employ home workers regularly or steadily but off and on for the whole year, giving preference to the best workers." A manufacturer of men's shirts reports: "We have had only two or three outside employees for the last six months. In the winter time we usually have ten."

The manufacturer that employs home workers has an advantage. When work is slack, he does not incur the loss of the employer of inside workers whose factory hands seek other jobs, nor does he bear the expense of the upkeep of a factory running at part capacity. On the other hand, in the case of a rush order he is not obliged to pay the increase of wages for overtime work.

TABLE XI

HOME WORKERS LENGTH OF SERVICE WITH PRESENT EMPLOYER

Time with present employer		Number of home workers
Number reporting		1046*
Less than 1 year	-----	411
1 year and less than 5	-----	375
5 years and less than 10	-----	164
10 years and less than 15	-----	57
15 years and less than 20	-----	26
20 years and less than 25	-----	16
25 years and less than 30	-----	
30 years and over	-----	7

* Not reported 67

Home workers frequently shift from one employer to the other, and from one industry to another. According to Table XI, of those reporting (1046) 39 per cent (411) were with their employer less than one year and 75 per cent (786), less than five years. One home worker was a knitter in a hosiery mill before marriage. After marriage she worked at home, making women's wrappers and collars for a factory. Later she bought a power machine and made men's shirts at home. She then returned to a hosiery mill to learn looping and now she is looping stockings at home. A second home worker before marriage worked in a hat factory. After marriage she was employed four or five years in a shirt factory. Later she took in washing and ironing and cooked at funerals. She then mended hosiery at home and now she is sewing labels on the yokes of men's shirts. On the other hand, there are home workers that have given faithful service to a single employer for thirty years and more.

TABLE XII
FORMER OCCUPATIONS OF HOME WORKERS AND PRESENT INDUSTRIES IN WHICH EMPLOYED

Former occupations	Number of home workers who manufacture						
	Total	Hosiery and Knit Goods	Men's Clothing	Women's and Children's Clothing	Rag Rugs	Tobacco	Other Products
Number Reporting	890*	314	182	45	46	98	205
Factory worker in same industry----	317	119	46	15	5	57	75
Home or domestic service-----	348	127	87	18	26	30	60
Other industries -----	225	68	49	12	15	11	70

* Not reported 223

FORMER OCCUPATIONS OF WORKERS.—A home worker may or may not have had factory experience. She may have worked in any number of industries, or she may always have been a housekeeper. As shown in Table XII, of those reporting (890) 36 per cent (317), were factory hands in the same industry in which they now work. Chief among them are the majority of the tobacco workers, the loopers, the menders of knit goods, the assemblers of sweaters, the silk pickers, and the hair workers.

Table XII also indicates that of those reporting, 25 per cent (225) were in other industries than those in which they now work at home. These occupations include almost all of those employing women in Pennsylvania, from a school teacher to a machine operator. Many of the needlewomen have been dressmakers who have resorted to industrial home work with the decline of their trade.

Table XII moreover indicates that of the home workers reporting, 39 per cent (348) have had no experience outside their homes or they have been in domestic service. In spite of this fact many of them

are skilled industrial workers. Mothers have taught their daughters these factory processes for more than a generation. "I got the habit from my mother," is a frequent testimony. Particularly in the tailoring industry in the country, children have served apprenticeships under their parents and their grand-parents. As early as 1835 and 1836, when manufacturers first produced ready made clothing one reads that "every country village within a hundred miles of New York became as busy as a beehive with tailors and tailoresses."¹

SYSTEM OF HELPERS.—Many of the home workers have from one to eight helpers, who are usually members of the family and whose assistance adds considerably to the family budget. According to Table XIII, of those interviewed (1113), 47 per cent (518) have helpers. They are the men, women and children of the family, who carry the huge bundles to and from the factory, or who run sewing machines, press garments, tape underwear and perform many other simple industrial processes. According to Table XIV, of the 1118, who render assistance to the chief home workers in 518 families, 49 per cent (496) of those reporting (1022) are adults, and 51 per cent (526) are children under 14 years of age.

TABLE XIII

HELPERS EMPLOYED BY HOME WORKERS IN VARIOUS INDUSTRIES

Number of helpers.	Number of home workers employing specified Number of helpers who manufacture						
	Total	Hosiery and Knit Goods	Men's Clothing	Women's and Children's Clothing	Rag Rugs	To- bacco	Other Industries
ALL HOME WORKERS	1113	327	328	66	51	48	242
No helper	595	127	225	56	20	33	144
1 helper	292	101	74	9	11	31	66
2 helpers	110	50	17	1	2	15	18
3 helpers	61	23	8		6	15	9
4 helpers	37	18	2		4	8	5
5 helpers	13	7	2		1	2	1
6 helpers	2	1				1	
7 helpers	2					2	
8 helpers	1					1	

Helpers are often the fathers of the family. It is not an uncommon sight to see an unemployed husband, or a husband, after the day's labor in the mill is over, doing his share of home work. Among the records of husbands as home workers are the following: "He tapes two to five dozen shirts in an evening." "He ties all the bows." "He could tape twenty dozen necks in a day, when he was out of work, before his eyes got sore." "He does all the trimming." "He puts the garments in bags." "He turns stockings." "He never goes anywhere in the evening, he always helps me braid."

¹Report on Condition of Women and Child Wage Earners, 1910, Vol. IX. History of Women in Industry in the United States, P. 121.

The man or the woman physically unfit to carry the burden of steady industrial employment may likewise assist in simple tasks. One home worker befriends a poor old man from the streets, who, in return for food and lodging, sews the cuffs of men's shirts or runs errands. Another home worker has two assistants,—an old uncle, who is deaf and dumb, and an old aunt, who is blind. The deaf mute folds men's shirts, and carries bundles to and from the factory, the blind woman turns all the garments.

OUTSIDE OCCUPATIONS OF WORKERS.—Women may work regularly or irregularly at occupations other than their home work. They are frequently factory hands employed in knitting and hosiery mills, in establishments manufacturing artificial flowers, paper goods, or hooks and eyes, in cigar and shoe factories.

TABLE XIV

SERVICE GIVEN TO HOMEWORKERS BY HELPERS IN VARIOUS INDUSTRIES

Groups of helpers	Number of helpers who manufacture						
	Total	Hosiery, and knit Goods	Men's Clothing	Women's and chil- dren's Cloth- ing	Rag Rugs	To- bacco	Other Products
ALL HELPERS	1118	459	175	19	73	187	205
Adults manufacturing the pro- duct	438	162	86	7	23	73	57
Children under 14 years of age Manufacturing the product.....	2	111	41		34	65	30
Adults manufacturing and transporting the product.....	30	17	1	2	4	3	3
Children under 14 years of age manufacturing and transporting the product.....	130	72	10		5	29	
Adults transporting the prod- uct	28	11	1	3		1	13
Children under 14 years of age transporting the product.....	125	52	23	5	4	16	31
Adults and Children, age not reported	90	34	13	2	3	16	28

These shophands may enlist themselves and their whole families in work taken from the factory, as a stringer who carries home tags in a suitcase, or they may also help out members of their families who are home workers. We have records of 65 female helpers of home workers, employed regularly in factories. Day and night work of these shophands may not even belong to the same industry.

On the other hand, home workers may eke out a living by a variety of part-time jobs. Many of them run small stores, such as cigar and confectionery shops. We have the report of a home worker that plays the organ at a church; of one that sells tickets at the movies, six nights in the week; of one that is a waitress at a restaurant. We have many records of women that wash and iron, clean, sew, and crochet, for outsiders, and more than all others, of those that keep lodgers and boarders.

CHILDREN IN THE FAMILIES OF WORKERS.—It has been assumed that the majority of these women are widowed mothers, earning a livelihood, or that the women work in the home, rather than in the shop, because of the presence of little children in the family, who need their care. The majority of home workers are married mothers with families, and but few are widowed. As shown in Table XV, of the women reporting (1057), only 19 per cent (200) are widows and of these, only 41 per cent (82) have children under 14 years of age. The majority of home workers have not large families. Of the total number of female home workers (1057), 40 per cent are without children under 14 years of age, 30 per cent (317) are married, widowed, divorced or deserted, but with no children, and 10 per cent (107) are single women. Of the women who are or have been married (950), 68 per cent (650) have two children or less under 14 years of age. The households of these home workers are characteristic American families of few children.

In the households where there are children, they are not predominantly young children. Of the children reported under 14 years of age (1732), only 37 per cent (638) are under six years of age. To be sure, the care of young children in the household, where they are to be found, must be a constant interruption to home work, and their presence may be a reason for the women working at home, rather than in a shop. We have the report of one home worker, who says

TABLE XV.

CONJUGAL CONDITION OF FEMALE HOME WORKERS WITH NUMBER OF CHILDREN UNDER 14 YEARS OF AGE.¹

Conjugal condition	Number of women with children under 14 years of age								
	Total ²	None	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
NUMBER REPORTING, -----	950	317	180	153	120	82	52	24	22
Married, -----	750	199	150	137	113	67	43	22	19
Widowed, -----	168	110	17	14	4	12	7	2	2
Divorced or deserted, -----						3	2		1

¹Of women visited, 107 were unmarried.

²Total number of children under 6 years of age, 638.

that she prefers work in the factory, but she can find no substitute for a mother. She has tried working at a hosiery mill, by paying one neighbor \$1.30 a week to care for her three year old child, and another neighbor one dollar a week to do her laundry. But her working day was haunted by uneasiness and she gave up the job, to mend hosiery at home. We have the report of another home worker, who has tried the same plan, by boarding out her four children, at one dollar a week each, and paying 50 cents a week for part of her laundry.

But she found that she was unable to stand the strain of regular work in the factory, and she gave it up to strip tobacco at home.

NECESSITY OF EARNINGS WITH REASONS FOR HOME WORK.—The real necessity of the earnings from home work to supplement wages, one cannot always clearly determine. The statement of the home worker with conditions observed and facts obtained by visitors, often difficult of classification, have been considered in compiling Table XVI. Among home workers there are two groups,—those who earn because the income of the family is inadequate for the necessities of life, and those who earn to maintain a standard of living considerably beyond a mere subsistence. As is shown in Table XVI of those reporting (953) 38 per cent (367) actually claim that they work to provide pocket money.

TABLE XVI.

HOME WORKER'S REASONS FOR HOME WORK.

Reasons assigned for home work	Number of women
NUMBER REPORTING, -----	953*
Married women:	
To aid husband whose income is insufficient with steady employment, -----	205
To aid husband whose income is irregular through drink, -----	6
To aid husband whose income is irregular through seasonal employment, -----	89
To aid husband whose income is irregular through sickness, -----	57
To aid husband who is totally incapacitated, -----	12
To pay debts, insurance, lodge dues, taxes, -----	13
To educate children, -----	2
To help dependent relatives, -----	3
To buy or furnish a home, -----	6
To buy a store, -----	1
To save money, -----	3
To provide pocket money, -----	316
Widowed, divorced, deserted women:	
To earn a living, -----	51
To supplement an income, -----	85
To pay debts, -----	2
To educate children, -----	1
To provide pocket money, -----	20
Single women:	
To earn a living, -----	20
To supplement an income, -----	30
To provide pocket money, -----	31

*Not reported, 104.

On the other hand in the limited number of cases (664), in which it was possible to estimate a total family yearly income, Table XVII shows the median to lie between \$700 and \$900. If in half of the families of these home workers, the entire yearly budget including the income from home work, falls below \$900, it would seem that poverty in the great proportion of cases makes home work necessary; that there is a pressure that compels the mother to make a contribution to the family income. In two cases family budgets rose as high as \$3500. These incomes are made up, in the first place, of the earnings of grown children, who have gone out to work, and in the second place, of the payments of boarders. At the other extreme of income groups we have the record of the yearly income of an old couple as \$215. The investigator adds; "All they have besides is charity."

There are indications of poor earning power among the husbands of home workers. According to Table XVIII, of the yearly earnings of husbands reported (559), 60 per cent (334) fall in the group of those specified from \$500 to \$900. One sees a correlation between the low salaries of these husbands of home workers and the industrial work of the wife at home.

TABLE XVII.

ANNUAL FAMILY INCOME OF HOME WORKERS.

Estimated annual income	Number of families
NUMBER REPORTING	664*
Less than \$300	46
\$300 and less than \$500	57
\$500 and less than \$700	104
\$700 and less than \$900	151
\$900 and less than \$1100	113
\$1100 and less than \$1300	76
\$1300 and less than \$1500	41
\$1500 and less than \$1700	24
\$1700 and less than \$1900	22
\$1900 and less than \$2100	11
\$2100 and less than \$2300	5
\$2300 and less than \$2500	6
\$2500 and less than \$2700	4
\$2700 and less than \$2900	1
\$2900 and less than \$3100	3
\$3100 and over	

*Not reported 449

TABLE XVIII.

ANNUAL EARNINGS OF HUSBANDS OF HOME WORKERS.

Estimated yearly earnings of husbands	Number of families
NUMBER REPORTING	559*
Unemployed	27
Less than \$100	3
\$ 100 and less than \$ 200	4
\$ 200 and less than \$ 300	15
\$ 300 and less than \$ 400	30
\$ 400 and less than \$ 500	52
\$ 500 and less than \$ 600	95
\$ 600 and less than \$ 700	91
\$ 700 and less than \$ 800	114
\$ 800 and less than \$ 900	34
\$ 900 and less than \$1000	39
\$1000 and less than \$1100	19
\$1100 and less than \$1200	5
\$1200 and less than \$1300	14
\$1300 and less than \$1400	11
\$1400 and less than \$1500	
\$1500 and over	6

*Not reported 191.

The husbands of home workers follow many occupations. They are semi-skilled operators in a variety of industries, molders, carpenters, tradesmen, railroad and street car employees, but as shown by Table XIX, laborers are more numerous than any other single group. Many of these laborers work in manufacturing and mechanical industries, while not a few,—especially the husbands of Italian finishers are day laborers shoveling dirt in the street or for the railroad.

A number of these occupations are indicative of seasonal work, and the burden of support may fall upon the wife during the months of her husband's idleness. As shown in Table XVI, 89 husbands work irregularly through seasonal employment.

TABLE XIX.

OCCUPATION OF HUSBANDS OF HOME WORKERS.

Occupation	Number of husbands
NUMBER REPORTING	695*
Unemployed	27
Clerks, stenographers, other clerical occupations	16
Barbers, waiters, park keepers, other domestic occupations	19
Farmers	10
Laborers (unspecified)	88
Manufacturing and mechanical industries	
Brick, stone masons	10
Carpenters, cabinet makers, wood carvers.	32
Cigar Makers,	16
Engineers, machinists, oilers	21
Foremen, superintendents.	14
Laborers	80
Molders, painters, paper hangers, plasterers, tinsmiths	46
Operative in factories (semi-skilled)	93
Tailors, shoemakers.	11
Others	26
Miners	9
Policemen, firemen, other public officials	18
Railway conductors, motormen, other employees in transportation	83
Teachers, photographers, other professional occupations.	11
Tradesmen	65

*Not reported 55

In many other families the underpayment of the husband with regular employment makes the contribution of the wife a necessity. The occupation of the husband may require a degree of skill, but the burden of support falls on the home worker. The occupation of a village photographer provides neither sufficient labor nor compensation. The village school master makes but \$55 a month. According to Table XVI of married women reporting (713), 29 per cent (205) declare that their husband's wages even with steady employment, are insufficient for the family needs.

It is not only low wages of the husband, irregular or seasonal work, uncertain returns from industry or agriculture which lead women to become industrial workers at home, but the varied catastrophes of life associated with disease and industrial accidents. Temporary and permanent incapacity of the husband through illness were assigned by 69 women as conditions which forced them to be home workers. The following cases tell the story of misfortune in the family:

A. A MENDER OF HOSIERY: "My husband had a milk route for two years, but the constant jolting of the milk wagon aggravated a weak stomach and he became ill. The lodge paid him five dollars a month, but when he was well enough to do the housework and to help in the yard, they stopped payments. We had enough money to pay off the mortgage on the house. We have all the vegetables that we need, but we must have other food and some money."

B. A TAPER OF UNDERWEAR: "My husband has been unable to work for seven years, for he is paralyzed. He sits in the corner by the stove all day."

C. A TAPER OF UNDERWEAR: "My husband was a printer on a Philadelphia paper. He had a tumor on the brain and for many years could not work. He is better now, but he cannot hold a job, for sleep frequently overcomes him."

D. A SHOE FINISHER: "My husband is crippled, but he is able to take care of the garden and tend the chickens. He can also help with the housework and the home work."

E. A LOOPER OF HOSIERY: "My husband was a laborer in a car shop for years. A heavy piece of steel struck him on the jaw, and he was in the hospital for a year. The jaw has never been right, and now he can only do teaming."

F. A MAKER OF MEN'S SHIRTS: "My husband fell from a forty foot pole while wiring for the electric company. The doctor says he will never be able to work again. He receives ten dollars a week, one half his pay, as compensation."

G. AN ITALIAN FINISHER OF TROUSERS: The father of the family is an ice maker, but he left his job to work for a builder, as a brick carrier. A plank fell on him which broke his leg. He was in the hospital six months, and at home, disabled, for six months. There are seven children in the family. Rosie, aged thirteen years, finishes policemen's trousers. She began at five years of age to sew on buttons. After eight years of experience, she can finish trousers as well as her mother, but her education has suffered, for she is only in the fourth grade of the public school. She rises at six o'clock. Her mother rises at five o'clock. Between them they get out eight pairs of trousers a day at eleven cents a pair. If the interruptions are many during the day, which is frequently the case, as the baby is suffering from bronchitis, they work until ten or eleven o'clock at night. The house of four rooms is filthy. The younger children are in rags.

An entirely different group of women, are without husbands,—widows, deserted wives, or spinsters. According to Table XVI, 30 per cent (71) of those reporting (240) have no other income than from home work, and 48 per cent (115) have an insufficient income that requires to be increased by earnings from home work. Among this group are some of the most overworked and unhappiest of working women. Evidences of desperate struggle to maintain a standard of living may be cited.

A. A TAPER OF UNDERWEAR: "My husband died four years ago leaving me five children, and a sixth child born after his death. The debt on the property was not paid and I had nothing but the bake shop. I worked early in the morning and late at night, and just when I seemed to be getting on my feet, the price of sugar and flour began to rise and I could make no profit at all, for people would not pay the advanced prices. A drug store nearby opened an ice cream and soda water fountain and took away that part of my business. I want my children in school and if they can earn something at taping, they can go to school longer. Without their help, all of us would starve. Each one does something.

My oldest boy rises at six o'clock and helps the baker. The girls tend to the store and tape underwear. Sometimes the teacher complains, because they do not do better work, but I cannot do more. I do not want the neighbors to know how hard it is for us to get along."

B. A TAPER OF UNDERWEAR: "My husband lost his life in a railroad accident. He left me penniless with six children and an old mother partly dependent upon me. My brother now gives me \$15 or \$20 a month. I increase this small income by home work, so that I can send all my children through high school."

C. A MAKER OF COATS: "My husband lost his life in the brick yards. As I received no widow's compensation, I began to support myself and my son by tailoring, which my mother taught me before marriage. I have lived on my earnings ever since, but for the few vegetables which my father and mother send me from their farm."

D. A MENDER OF HOSIERY: "My husband was installing a safe in a cellar. It fell upon him and killed him. I increase a compensation of \$12 a week by home work."

E. A TAPER OF UNDERWEAR: "I was born in Russia. My husband was hurt in a mine. He was in a hospital six months and died. The company paid \$275,—the expenses of the funeral, and gave us seven tons of coal for two winters. I wash, keep five boarders, do my own housework, sew for the children and tape underwear."

But among home workers are a group quite diverse from those who are driven by necessity. They are the women who are seeking self expression, who take pleasure in partial economic independence, who desire to maintain a higher standard of living, or who wish to earn "spending money" or "to pass the time away." These home workers are no inconsiderable proportion, for, according to Table XVI, they are 39 per cent (367) of those reporting (953). Illustrations best tell the story of this group of home workers.

A. A TAPER OF UNDERWEAR: "My neighbors on both sides of me and across the street do home work and they would think I was lazy if I did nothing. I put the money that I earn in the bank."

B. A MAKER OF COATS: "I do home work for a pastime, in order to take my mind off my sorrow. My husband was killed in a railroad accident a short time ago. I live all alone, and if I did not make coats, I would think of him all the time."

C. A TAPER OF UNDERWEAR: "We don't think we get enough for all this tedious work, but just the same we want a little spending money. I have no other money that is really my own."

D. A TAPER OF UNDERWEAR: "My daughter does not know that I do this work. I keep it out of her sight. But what I earn is in my pocket, to spend as I like."

E. A MAKER OF COATS: "I buy clothes for myself and send things to my children. I have bought a piano for three hundred dollars, and three sewing machines, all on the installment plan, besides paying the premium on an endowment policy. I do not give my husband any of my money."

F. A TAPER OF UNDERWEAR: "The mister does not spend his money recklessly, so that I feel that I ought to do my part too. There's many a little thing that I can get for myself and the children, that I couldn't otherwise. It takes every penny these days to buy food and pay the rent and insurance. Then, too, the children have to have warm and decent clothes, or the teacher will send them home from school."

G. A TRIMMER OF HATS: "When I work, we can be comfortable and have some extras. We put our money in a common fund. Last year we bought a motor cycle, which gives us much fun."

H. A MENDER OF HOSIERY: "I couldn't have fresh string beans and go to the movies, if I didn't make my own money. Of course I am saving a good deal to have my teeth out and get a new set, but I can do other things too."

I. A TRIMMER OF HATS: "I do not mind doing home work, because I know that my husband can support me. I love to trim hats, and with the money I make, I can take little trips. I always go to the Orpheum or the Hippodrome once a week."

Other women give similar reasons for home work. "I have just cleared my house." "I am buying property." "I wish to pay a church pledge." "I keep up my lodge dues." "My daughter wishes to take piano lessons." "I need Christmas money." "It passes the time while I watch the store." "I need a new hat." "I can keep a servant." "I must pay taxes." "We are in debt." "I am saving money to be married." "We want to start a butcher shop." "I like salt in my food and just earn enough to buy extra salt." "I work for the fun of it." "I've got a mania for it." "I have extra time and it amuses the children." "I do home work instead of fancy work in the afternoon."

CHAPTER IV.

EARNINGS OF HOME WORKERS

SUPPLY OF HOME WORKERS—There is always a plentiful labor supply for home work since the processes consist of monotonous and mechanical operations which require no experience. Manufacturers declare that while there is a scarcity of laborers inside the factories there is no lack of women at home who will work. A manufacturer of knit underwear reports: "The women fight for taping. We have all the home workers we need, and so we can choose the best."

Because of this plentiful unskilled labor supply the individual home worker often suffers from lack of work. One worker complains: "Although this is the busy season, we have had nothing to do for three weeks. Sometimes it happens that the children do not get to the factory soon enough, and other people get all the work there is." Another home worker declares: "When Friday comes and Saturday. I must go to the mill myself, and fight with Italians to get shirts, because the foreigners take them out to do over Sunday." Still another home worker says: "We get work only after the older women, so we don't get much. We could do a great deal more." Fear that she may lose her work, if she ceases toiling for a day haunts many a home worker.

EARNINGS.—Consequently the home worker is poorly paid. Difficulty attends a calculation of a rate of earnings, since the home worker continues the same operation in the process of manufacture from one product to the next, instead of completing all the operations on each product at a time. The worker adds to this difficulty of computation as she often works with members of her family and is uncertain of her rate of output. Table XX records the hourly earnings of all home workers. They vary from one-half cent to one dollar,—a variation due in part to a lack of standardization of pay and in part to wide divergence in groups of workers. A few of them are skilled to the height of efficiency; others are slow workers, burdened with old age and ill health. Among the very low paid home workers are those that prepare carpet rags, finish men's clothing, tape underwear, mend hosiery, string tags, make children's outer garments, manufacture hat ornaments, sort scraps of leather, card hooks, eyes and patent fasteners, and remove paper patterns from embroidered blouses, nine cents an hour is the median rate of earnings of all home workers. An hourly rate of pay of nine cents, a working week of 54 hours, would yield to the wage-earner \$4.86—an income far below that which is necessary for subsistence.

TABLE XX.
HOURLY RATES OF HOME WORKERS—WITH AND WITHOUT HELPERS
IN VARIOUS INDUSTRIES.

Hourly rate of earnings	Number of home workers earning specified hourly rates who manufacture											
	Hosiery and knit goods		Men's clothing (coats, pants, vests)		Men's clothing (shirts)		Women's and children's clothing		Rag rugs		Tobacco	
	With- out helpers	With help- ers	With- out helpers	With help- ers	With- out helpers	With help- ers	With- out helpers	With help- ers	With- out helpers	With help- ers	With- out helpers	With help- ers
Total												
958*	112	184	165	72	44	21	45	6	19	29	22	103
Less than 5 cents, -----	16	31	14	8	2	1	2	1	11†	17†	5	12
5 cents and less than 9, --	320	88†	59	17	7	3	15	---	7	8	5	7
9 cents and less than 13, --	237†	42	46†	17†	14†	10†	7†	---	1	4	6†	24
13 cents and less than 17, --	126	5	31	5	15	2	9	3†	---	---	3	31†
17 cents and less than 21, --	48	6	5	5	15	3	7	---	---	---	2	18
21 cents and less than 25, --	25	4	---	1	2	1	3	---	---	---	1	6
25 cents and less than 29, --	15	4	---	1	1	1	1	---	---	---	---	1
29 cents and less than 33, --	8	---	4	1	---	---	---	---	---	---	1	2
33 cents and less than 37, --	12	3	1	1	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---
37 cents and less than 41, --	4	4	1	---	1	---	---	---	---	---	---	1
41 cents and less than 45, --	1	---	1	1	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	1
45 cents and less than 49, --	4	---	1	1	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---
49 cents and over, -----	26	---	1	15	---	---	1	1	---	---	---	3

*Not reported, 155. †Median rate.

†Nine cents an hour is the median rate for all workers.

The annual earnings of the majority of home workers do not cover the cost of the lodging, food and clothes, essential to a decent standard of living. Few families or independent workers can support themselves by home work alone. A study of the annual wages paid by manufacturers to home workers gives proof that the wages usually are merely supplementary. In the questionnaire that we sent to manufacturers throughout Pennsylvania, they recorded the number of home workers employed by them and the total annual wages paid by them. According to Table XXI, the average annual wage paid to home workers by the manufacturers reporting is \$162. In only a few industries is the average wage above \$300. Two manufacturers of spectacles employing five home workers report average annual wages of \$533. Eighty-five manufacturers of men's clothing, employing 1576 home workers, report average annual wages of \$349. Two manufacturers of hats employing 16 home workers, report average annual wages of \$316. From these accurate records

TABLE XXI
ANNUAL WAGES PAID BY FIRMS TO HOME WORKERS.

Industries.	Number of firms	Number of home workers	Total annual wages paid to home workers in dollars	Average annual wages paid to home workers in dollars
TOTAL	451	7005	1,277,333	162
Hosiery, knit goods	148	2646	232,692	89
Men's clothing (coats, pants, vests)	85	1576	550,739	349
Men's clothing (shirts)	32	426	76,298	179
Women's, children's clothing	30	553	150,838	270
Rag rugs	13	763	34,614	45
Tobacco	5	16	3,100	194
Other industries:				
Bags	2	35	300	9
Books	3	7	960	137
Brushes	2	8	766	96
Chairs	2	6	158	26
Curtains	7	39	2,166	56
Embroidered goods	11	351	52,838	151
Flags, banners	6	28	2,250	80
Gloves, leather	1	4	134	34
Gloves, other than leather	9	134	10,723	80
Hair goods	8	22	6,212	282
Handkerchiefs	2	38	5,738	151
Hats, artificial flowers	2	16	5,060	316
Jewelry, silverware	1	12	6	
Lamp shades	1	3	360	120
Neckwear, dress and hat trimmings	13	267	59,040	221
Novelty goods	1	2	240	120
Paper goods	32	421	39,635	92
Sanitary rubber goods, corsets	1	25	236	9
Shoes, trimmings	7	33	2,510	76
Silk goods	18	403	27,886	69
Spectacles, cases	2	5	2,607	533
Suspenders, garters	2	31	8,176	264
Toilet preparations	1	5	150	30
Toys, sporting goods, dolls' dresses	3	23	1,492	65
Woolen goods,	1	3	369	120

* These are the actual records of employers hiring home workers.

of manufacturers themselves, only one-fifth (89) of the total number of firms (451), from whom we received replies, paid the home worker an average annual income above \$300.

Home workers themselves cannot give a satisfactory estimate of their earnings. Difficulty of calculation arises through the uncertainty of the worker herself, concerning the time of her employment and the size of her output. Many of these women work intermittently and supplement their wages now and then, as need demands or inclination directs. Only the steady workers or those who keep an account book have any adequate idea of their income from home work. According to Table XXII, the annual income of 90 per cent (437) of those reporting (485), with and without helpers, in service of their employers, one year or more, is less than \$300, as compared with 80 per cent, reported by manufacturers. The highest annual salary of a worker without helpers is \$780, reported by a maker of women's silk dresses. Owners of stogie workshops report the highest annual salaries of group workers. The statistical table does not include them, since they are independent producers, not employed by outside firms. One of these family groups of mature stogie makers reports annual earnings of \$2500. Of family groups of home workers, employed by outside manufacturers, earnings rise little above those of home workers without helpers. Rare is the testimony that home work is the only source of income. Other income is derived from wages of members of the family, or from payments of boarders or lodgers, or other sources, such as rents, insurance benefits, widow's and soldier's pensions, and charitable

TABLE XXII

ANNUAL EARNINGS OF HOME WORKERS (IN SERVICE OF FIRM ONE YEAR OR MORE) WITH AND WITHOUT HELPERS.

Annual earnings	Number of home workers with Specified earnings		
	Total	Without helpers	With helpers
Number Reporting	485*	228	257
Less than \$100	162	74	88
\$100 and less than \$200	205	95	110
\$200 and less than \$300	70	32	38
\$300 and less than \$400	34	18	16
\$400 and less than \$500	6	4	2
\$500 and less than \$600	6	4	2
\$600 and less than \$700			
\$700 and less than \$800	1	1	
\$800 and less than \$900			
\$900 and less than \$1000	1		1
\$1000 and over			

*Not reported 103 without helpers, 47 with helpers.

organizations. In only a few cases are the earnings of either a family group or of a worker without helpers sufficient to cover the whole means of support.

OVERHEAD CHARGES.—The home worker bears the legitimate factory costs. She has numerous expenses in connection with her work which one must consider in computing her earnings. Home industries are largely sewing trades. The worker must then furnish a sewing machine, which costs from \$23 to \$55. Certain special appliances, such as a button-hole attachment, which costs from five to ten dollars, may save the drudgery of hand work. With the constant sewing of heavy cloth, a machine may often be in need of repair or replacement. Testimony of home workers varies. A maker of men's clothing reports: "In 32 years I have had three machines, which cost \$23, \$30, and \$35 apiece." A second home worker declares: "I have used a Singer sewing machine for 25 years and have used it 17 years steadily for tailoring. It has had only one shuttle and two new feeders." The worker must often replace machine needles and buy oil to keep a machine in running order. She sometimes uses chalk for marking the parts of a garment, and pins for assembling pieces. Custom tailors, and often carpet rag sewers, provide their own thread. Some home workers in finishing garments must press them, which process necessitates the use of gas or coal. The home worker must supply herself with scissors for cutting cloth and threads, and for special processes outside the sewing trades, such as for trimming leather scraps. These scissors cost from \$0.65 to \$1.25 a pair. She also must often pay a fee of from five to fifteen cents to have them sharpened. Although manufacturers sometimes bear some of the overhead charges, such as the providing of scissors, or the sharpening of them, usually the home worker must bear all these minor costs in provision of equipment.

Electric power machines are in the homes of many industrial workers. Chief among them are the sewing machine and the looper, although one occasionally finds other electric power machines such as those used in the manufacture of shoes and boxes. Almost all home workers that make women's dresses and men's shirts use a sewing machine run by electricity. The home worker sometimes furnishes these machines and usually runs them at her own expense. This outlay is considerable, since it includes, besides the cost of a sewing machine with a motor, often the expense of wiring a house, and usually the current cost of the electricity. Home workers variously state these expenditures. They value the motor from \$13 upward, the wiring of the house from \$7.50 to \$17. They estimate the electricity bill from \$1 to \$2.50 a month. Two manufacturers,

one of men's shirts and another of knit underwear, bear the expense of a sewing machine and a motor, but the latter reduces the pay of the home worker from 2cents to $1\frac{1}{4}$ cents for sewing labels on a dozen garments. The manufacturer of men's shirts is more generous, since he allows the home worker five per cent on all her earnings to offset the bill for the electric current. The looping machine and other special machines, manufacturers usually install in the home of the worker free of expense. The factory owner cares for all repairs. The home worker pays the bill for electricity. In some cases, the home worker bears some of the minor expense, in the installation of special machines, such as that of connecting the machine and that for a special motor. Often these expenditures in the provision of electric power machines mean a large indebtedness which a home worker removes by the payment of small weekly or monthly installments.

Among the other special equipment provided by home workers are the knife, booking block and scale of the tobacco stripper; the hoop of the embroiderer; the reel of the carpet rag sewer; the rubber pad and the tool for goffering of the artificial flower maker; the frame with rollers of the silk picker; the holder of the maker of spectacles; the frame of the book-binder; the bodkin of the taper of underwear; and the dropstitch needle of the mender of hosiery. The home worker almost always bears the expense of all such special equipment.

The cost of transportation usually falls upon the home worker. The majority of employers make no provision for delivery. The home worker must go for the material herself or send some member of the family for it. She then may provide her own boxes, gunny sacks or suitcases and always she supplies the vehicle,—such as a small express wagon or a baby carriage. Huge bundles which may contain as many as 40 men's shirts or 40 dozen union snits are difficult to manage in transportation. If the home worker cannot co-operate with a neighbor or a member of her family, she may be obliged to hire a small boy for 5 to 25 cents, or an expressman for 25 or 50 cents a trip. Rather than incur the expense of a helper she may prefer to make the journey to the factory twice. Carfare is no small item, especially when one considers some of the Arsenal workers, who come from Wilmington, Delaware, at a cost of 70 cents for transportation, and even from distances more than twice as far. The country women live over great distances of thinly populated territory. Some of them come into town on the stage or in their own vehicle and get work, especially when the roads are bad and the employer's truck cannot run out many miles. It is not unusual to see an automobile drive up to a mill and its owner fill it with

gunny sacks of material to be worked up by the women on his farm. But the boys and girls of the home worker's family are the chief carriers to and from the factory.

In the better organized firms, an auto truck or a team will distribute the material and the driver will call for it upon a specified day. Some country establishments run several wagons and distribute or collect work each day. Rarely, if ever, do the country women that manufacture men's clothing haul the huge bundles themselves, as do the Italian finishers of the city, or most of the tapers of underwear. Some mill owners who do not deliver in town, provide a truck for the country. The home worker may pay a fee for delivery. One factory owner reduces the rate of pay for stripping tobacco from 2 cents to $1\frac{3}{4}$ cents on each pound that he delivers. Another manufacturer reduces the rate of pay 2 cents on each dozen hats in order to offset the cost of transportation. A third manufacturer reduces the rate of pay 5 cents upon each gross of file brushes, for the delivery of the material. Some factory owners charge a flat rate of ten cents or thereabouts, a trip. Although the better organized firms do furnish transportation, often the home worker pays for this accommodation.

The home worker often bears increased expenditures in the upkeep of her home. Light is not a small item of expense for night workers, to which class almost all home workers belong. On the other hand, the factory owner saves rent, light, and heat, and the upkeep of a building.

The home worker often bears the burden of damage to raw material or loses her pay for imperfect work. A looper reports that her machine was slightly out of adjustment, and for the imperfect work which she turned out, the factory owner docked her 3 cents for each dozen pairs of stockings, or half pay. If possible the home worker will usually remedy imperfect work. If she is unable to do this, a factory owner will send it to a competent woman known as a "busheler" and the home worker loses her pay. One mill owner charges each home worker 3 cents for a book, which contains coupons designating the amount of her output. On the outer cover of this book the factory owner has pasted a label bearing these words: "Imperfect work will not be paid for. A fine will be assessed for work damaged by carelessness." The home worker must frequently pay small fines, for soiled garments,—2 or 3 cents up to 30 cents a garment. An employer of Italian finishers fines his workers 10 cents for each stain that appears upon a pair of men's trousers. A manufacturer of gloves fines his workers 10 and 20 cents for cutting a silk glove in "pulling threads." He also fines the worker for a water or grease mark. Other manufacturers require the purchase of a damaged article outright.

BONUSES, INACCURACIES, AND DISCRIMINATIONS IN PAYMENT OF WAGES.—On the other hand, a few mill owners have instituted a bonus system, which they have extended to their home workers—five or ten per cent of their annual wages if retained in service. Sometimes they give small presents at Christmas time—a calendar, an orange, a box of candy, a dollar bill. One mill owner took all his employees, including his home workers, on a day's outing to Atlantic City.

Home workers report that they have no difficulty in collecting their pay. In general, they go to the office of the mill upon an assigned day,—usually Saturday of each week, or of each second week. Some mill owners make no provisions for pay day, and the workers call irregularly, when inclined, or once a month. Often the driver pays them when he collects the finished work.

Home workers, however, often suffer injustices from discriminatory and inaccurate computation of wages. They occasionally complain that the time-keeper, who assigns work in the factory, is not accurate, putting extra garments in a bundle, for which they can make no claim. Others complain of a considerable aggregate reduction of pay in the loss of the half cent of pay for irregular numbers of garments. The material assigned to the home workers to be finished is not always uniform. A bolt of silk or an assortment of hosiery may have many flaws or few to be remedied, but compensation may be uniform in accordance with output. One home worker reported that she contributed 25 cents for a flag for the mill in the hope that she would get a better grade of tobacco to strip. Although skill counts but little in the performance of most of these simple, monotonous tasks, in which the wage earner is as efficient after a month as after twenty years of training, yet even where skill is an asset, the skilled sometimes receive less than the unskilled—for instance, the skilled coat maker in the country receives less than the unskilled finisher of the city. Home workers isolated from a labor market and keen for earning money must often take lower wages than the standard which a city group has been able to maintain. We have record of a knitting mill which pays 4 cents for finishing a dozen garments in the town and 2½ cents in the country. This group of isolated workers is at a disadvantage in protecting themselves from discrimination and inaccuracies in the payment of wages.

CHAPTER V.

CHILD LABOR.

THE CHILD LABOR LAW.—The State of Pennsylvania prohibits the employment for compensation of children who have not attained the age of 14 years, and who are between the ages of 14 and 16 years, but who have not reached the sixth grade of school.¹ Minors between 14 and 16 years of age must attend a continuation school. Abuses under the factory system impel the state constantly to extend and increase its protection. As a consequence of these legal restrictions a factory owner complains: "It is a great inconvenience to employ children between 14 and 16 years of age. They must get off before the older workers, and they must spend eight hours in a continuation school. However, many mill owners are not very strict in their observance of the law, and their laxity makes it hard on those that are. This law cuts off our labor supply, since workers over 16 years of age want too much money. Home work [of children] although frequently unsatisfactory, supplies our need."

Labor of children on industrial home work goes almost unchallenged in Pennsylvania. The number of children in home industry tends to increase whenever the law bars them from industry in the factory. A manufacturer of underwear declares: "We count on the work of children at home." Often they enter industrial life as soon as they can thread a needle or draw a tape with a bodkin. A mill owner testifies: "The child labor and school laws, limiting the work of children, forces industry into the homes, as an adequate source of a cheap labor supply." The very evils which the law attempts to correct, children bear in increased numbers, laboring in the home often under conditions of more evil import than those in the factory.

EXTENT OF CHILD LABOR.—At home children from three years of age and upward, perform industrial processes. As shown in Table XXIII, in 19 per cent (209) of visits to 1113 families, there were found 401 cases of child labor,—an average of two children in each household. Child labor is even more prevalent than this percentage indicates for women are apt to conceal from an investigator the industrial work of their children, since they know that public sentiment looks with disfavor upon the gainful employment of a child under 14 years of age.

It is the children of American parents, many of whom are country dwellers, who chiefly work in home industry. Of the 401 cases of child labor, only 12 per cent (50) are the children of foreigners, and of the 209 families visited, in which child labor exists, 45 per

¹The Act does not apply to employment of children on the farm or in domestic service in private homes. Child Labor Act of May 13, 1915, Act 177, Section 1.

TABLE XXIII

HOME INDUSTRIES EMPLOYING CHILDREN UNDER 14 YEARS OF AGE.

Industries	Number of Families Visited.	Number of Families In Which There Is Child Labor.	Number of Children Employed.
Total	944*	209	401
Hosiery, knit goods -----	327	97	182
Men's clothing (coats, pants, vests)-----	251	16	25
Men's clothing (shirts) -----	77	11	21
Rag rugs -----	51	11	35
Tobacco -----	98	42	88
Other industries:			
Embroidered goods -----	17	2	4
Flags, banners -----	14	4	7
Gloves, other than leather -----	32	8	12
Handkerchiefs -----	3	1	1
Hats, artificial flowers -----	13	1	1
Paper goods -----	30	7	9
Shoes, trimmings -----	29	8	15
Toys, sporting goods, dolls' dresses -----	2	1	1

* 100 families were visited in other industries in which there is no report of child labor.

cent (95) are dwellers in towns and villages of less than 5000 inhabitants. Contrary to the usual opinion, there are comparatively few cases of child labor among the foreigners in the tenements of the large cities. Where child labor does exist here the Italians and the Austrians are the chief offenders.

Industrial processes performed by children are proportionately most prevalent in the homes of tobacco strippers, although the laws of Pennsylvania prohibit the employment of a minor under 16 years of age from stripping tobacco, on the ground that it is a dangerous process. According to Table XXIII, in 43 per cent (42) of the 98 families that strip tobacco, children under fourteen years of age work in the industry. One child of 4 years of age is learning the process. Another child, 9 years of age, is as skillful as her mother.

The hosiery and knit goods industry affords simple processes for the labor of children. According to Table XXIII, in 30 per cent (97) of the 327 families that finish hosiery and knit goods, children under 14 years of age are at work. The running of tape through the lace about the neck and arms of underwear, tying and trimming the ends of the braid, are the usual tasks assigned to them and other monotonous, unskilled processes, which a factory owner declares are "too tedious for inside hands."

The rag carpet and the men's clothing industry utilize the labor of children. According to Table XXIII, in 22 per cent (11) of the 51 families that sew rag carpets, in 14 per cent (11) of the 77 families that make men's shirts, and in 6 per cent (16) of the 251 families that finish men's coats, pants and vests, children under 14 years of age are at work. Children 6 years of age and upward lay out sleeves, cuffs and yokes of men's shirts, cut labels apart, turn col-

lars and cuffs, and sew on buttons. Other children pull bastings, cut threads and sew buttons and tickets on men's coats, pants and vests. But to handle a needle in finishing men's clothing requires skill; to run a sewing machine requires strength; only the older children have these qualifications. Therefore child labor is less prevalent in the finishing of men's clothing than in other large home industries.

Parents have set their children to work upon numerous other processes. In the manufacture of American flags, an industry that greatly expanded after the declaration of war, children trim the edges of the stars stitched by machine on the blue fields of the flag. Children also trim and sort scraps of leather, to be used for the manufacture of shoes. Some of them as young as 7 years of age sort them, while older children trim them. One mother explains: "The children (12, 11, and 7 years of age) object because I make them do this work, but it keeps them off the street, and they don't wear out shoes as fast when they are kept busy." Other children pull the loose threads of silk gloves to the wrong side, tie them, and turn the gloves to the right side; put cords on hats for boy scouts; assemble paper mottoes for Christmas and Hallowe'en, and finish them with wirehooks; turn shoes and pair them; string paper tags with wire and cord; and cut out embroidery.

A series of statements made by investigators, picturing the scenes that they have come upon, present graphically the story of child labor:

FAMILY A: "A 5 year old child is sitting on a couch buttoning little undershirts and trimming the ends of the tape. She has finished a big pile of garments, and has a big pile of them yet to do. Her brother, 8 years of age, is running braid through the lace by means of a bodkin. He has unwound the silk tape, and has spread it on the floor. His hands could not be blacker. His clothes are filthy. At this process he is able to earn a rate of one cent an hour. The father of this family, an Austrian, declares: 'Shirts no good. Me no ruin eyes'."

FAMILY B: "The mother has a looping machine which the factory has installed in her home. A daughter 6 years of age, cuts the stockings apart as they come from the machine, and looks for holes. The husband, a machinist, through illness and nonemployment, working irregularly, and three sons (12, 10, and 8 years of age) turn the hosiery right side out."

FAMILY C: "The mother mends hosiery from the mill, while the other members of the family examine and turn them. These helpers consist of an old father unable to go out to work, a husband employed irregularly in a factory manufacturing spokes for wagon wheels, and three children (12, 10, and 7 years of age)."

FAMILY D: "Rosie (13 years of age) finishes policemen's pants. She began to sew on buttons when 5 years old. She is now only in the fourth grade of school."

FAMILY E: "The mother sews labels on yokes of men's shirts and her children (11, 10, and 8 years of age) cut labels apart, trim threads, and arrange the yokes in piles."

FAMILY F: "The mother makes soft collars for men's shirts. Her husband, a driver, unsteadily employed, runs the sewing machine. The two children (13 and 10 years of age) cut the collars apart and turn them."

FAMILY G: A mother states: "I get staves and flags for the children (10 and 9 years of age). They tack ten dozen in an evening for which they get ten or fifteen cents. I give them five or ten cents a week for spending money. I use what is left for their clothes."

FAMILY H: A mother declares: "I only wrap flags myself. I make the children (14, 12, 10, and 7 years of age) tack flags in the evening, but I have a hard time keeping them at it. I put all the money that they make in the Christmas savings fund."

FAMILY I: A mother complains: "Lewis (6 years of age) opens up the tobacco leaves and strips, but he won't stay steady."

A point that deserves particular emphasis is the tender age at which children are set to work. Before they enter the school room they learn to strip tobacco, to tear rags for carpets, to sew on buttons, to trim ends of thread, to pull bastings, to turn hosiery, to tape underwear, and to string tags. Among those that do home work is a child 3 years of age who opens envelopes containing the parts of toys to be assembled. We have the record of 18 children industrially employed, who have not arrived at school age. An investigator reports her entrance into the settlement of Rock Run, a region quite isolated in the hills above Coatsville,—a community of Negroes, Austrians, Poles, Russians, and Americans of low type. "A woman ill-kempt, and a child 6 years of age, filthy and without underclothes, sit on the porch of an old house stripping tobacco. The woman says that she has 'no time to send the child to school.' Likewise, nearby in front of a house, sits a mother with her two children, 6 and 5 years of age, who are also stripping tobacco.

It is usually the work of the boys and girls to carry materials of manufacture, often the whole output of a large factory to and from the homes. They haul huge bundles, sometimes a mile and a half into the country in small express carts. An Italian boy (9 years of age) is in the habit of carrying a twenty-five pound sack of carpet rags on his back to and from the mill. In a visit to a factory town one often sees a great crowd of children with their express carts at the door of a tobacco factory or a knit underwear mill. According to Table XIV, of the 255 children engaged in transportation of materials, one half of them (130) also perform industrial processes in their homes.

One sees upon entrance into the little towns of Royersford and Spring City many signs indicative of industrial work of children. These towns lie directly opposite each other on the banks of the Schuylkill River, which divides the counties of Montgomery and Chester. When school is out, the streets swarm with little express wagons drawn by small boys and girls, containing gunny sacks

filled with underwear, finished and on its way to the factory, or unfinished and on its way to the home. Not all these little workers are as docile and unimaginative as child workers are frequently pictured. Small boys here and there, with their wagons drawn up to the curb, stop for a game of marbles, or coast down a hill, throwing themselves on the top of a huge bundle. More than one sack has landed in a mud puddle, and an anxious mother has laundered and rearranged the contents to prevent the imposition of a fine at the mill.

If these children do not help out the mother in industrial employment, or in carrying the heavy bundles to and from the factory, they may take up her burden in the home,—in performing the necessary tasks in the household, and in caring for the younger children of the family. One home worker declares: "I always keep one of the twins home from school on wash days." Another mother says: "Sarah (9 years of age) can braid shirts as well as I, but she cannot tie the ends of the tape. I have to keep her home from school now to take care of the baby who is having stomach trouble." An investigator reports: "The boy (10 years of age) stopped school several months ago in order to help his mother strip tobacco and to mind his little brother." In her eagerness to make money the mother often shifts the responsibilities of the household upon the shoulders of her young children.

CHILD LABORERS IN THE SCHOOL.—The school authorities in Coatesville cite among children of tobacco strippers, many instances of retardation and unsatisfactory attendance in one hundred days of school. Mary, aged 8 years, in grade one, attended 76 days; Michael, aged 8 years, in grade one, 59 days; Annie aged 10 years, in grade two, 75 days; Mary, aged 11 years, in grade two, 75 days; John, aged 13 years, in grade five, 68½ days; Howard, aged 13 years, in grade four, 61 days; Tony, aged 14 years, in grade four, 60 days. Howard smokes a great deal and chews. Tony's color and general appearance show the effect of the use of tobacco. All of these children are from one to five years backward in school.

The irregularity of the school attendance of these children reflects the condition of their home life. A resident of Coatesville, familiar with the settlement, writes: "The women are industrious and as clean as they can be with their limitations. The men, employed in the pipe works and steel mills of Coatesville are fond of drink and cards." The children are without doubt called to aid an overburdened mother, either in industrial employment or in the necessary cares of the household.

The following is the school record of some of these children actually engaged in stripping tobacco. Clarence, aged 15 years, is in grade five; John, aged 13, is in grade one; Frank, aged 12, is in grade five; Mary, aged 11, in grade two; Michael, aged 9, in grade one. All of these young tobacco strippers are from one to six years backward in school. Some of them are of unhealthy color and both mentally and physically deficient.

A large proportion of all the school children employed in industry at home are backward. They are often kept out of school. Seven of the children between six and fourteen years of age are not in school at all. Various excuses are advanced, such as that of the woman who declared: "My boy (13 years of age) is not in school because the roads are bad." An investigator describes an Italian family: "The mother and her two children (11 and 9 years of age) tape underwear. The family came to this country a year ago, and the children have never gone to school. They cannot speak English. The father says that they must earn money for shoes so that they can go." According to Table XXIV, 34 per cent (114) of those reported (339) are from one to five years behind grade. This estimate, based upon a standard of six years of age in grade one, seven years of age in grade two, and continued upward, permits a deviation of one year, which is the accepted standard in some of our city schools. This percentage of backward children is high, especially when one takes into consideration the fact that one is dealing with a group of children, a large proportion of whom are of American parentage.

Many of these children attend school while working at home after hours, early in the morning and late at night, on Saturdays and holidays. What this work means may be seen more clearly from the following description of specific cases. A mother says: "Sometimes the children get up at six o'clock in the morning and work before school, but they can only work hard about one hour. Taping makes them nervous." Another declares: "The whole family which includes three children, (12, 11, and 7 years of age) sorts scraps of leather many a night until twelve or one o'clock." Still another mother describes the work of her child: "Mary, (10 years of age), did four dozen shirts night before last, working in the evening until ten o'clock. But last evening she fell asleep in her chair when she had only done three dozen." Another mother reports: "The children, (13, 10, 6, and 5 years of age) work every day from four o'clock in the afternoon until nine o'clock at night with enough time off to eat their supper. It's a good thing for them. It keeps them off the streets." Not only irregular attendance but physical exhaustion prevents these children from deriving the full benefits of school opportunities.

TABLE XXIV

AGES OF CHILDREN UNDER 14 YEARS, DOING HOME WORK, AND GRADE IN SCHOOL

Age of children	Total number of children	Children in grade								
		I	II	III	IV	V	VI	VII	VIII	High school
TOTAL NUMBER OF CHILDREN, -----	339*	44	42	51	60	63	39	25	14	1
5 years, -----	1	1								
6 years, -----	15	15								
7 years, -----	34	17	16	1						
8 years, -----	34	5	11	15	3					
9 years, -----	41	4	5	14	16	2				
10 years, -----	54		5	15	14	15	5			
11 years, -----	51	1	3	3	15	18	9	2		
12 years, -----	58	1	1	2	9	21	13	9	2	
13 years, -----	51		1	1	3	7	12	14	12	1
Backward in school, ----	114	11	15	21	27	28	12			

*Not reported, 37.

125 children doing home work reported not in schools 18 below 6 years of age 7 between 6 and 14 years of age.

REASON FOR CHILD LABOR.—Parents regard the industrial work of their children from various points of view. Some of them desire relief from burden and responsibility of family support. Occasionally a parent admits shifting a disagreeable task, as does a mother who says: "Once in awhile I get infant's undershirts. They are hard to do, and I do not like the work. I always give them to one of the youngsters." In some families children work more regularly than their fathers, but dire poverty does not oppress or lazy parents afflict all the families in which children do industrial home work. Thrift often impels a mother and father to encourage their children to keep busy at home work. In some families the earnings of the children make possible an accumulation of savings. In others, parents consider home work a benefit to their children. They declare that therein they acquire industrious habits and discretion in spending their own earnings. One mother ingenuously remarks: "The taping of undershirts is the most effective punishment that I am able to inflict upon my 10 year old son."

DANGERS TO THE CHILD.—Often these little home workers are physically overstrained. All processes, however simple, require close attention and the constant bending of the body in one position. These conditions frequently give rise to eyestrain, prevent a full development of the ever changing organs of the body and endanger the health in many ways. In fact they are undoubtedly a real impediment to the normal development of some children and may be a menace to each one of them.

Even when children are sick they perform these industrial processes. During an epidemic of whooping cough in a little village of Montgomery County, the women carried home a double quantity of tobacco to employ the leisure hours of their children that were quarantined. A home worker naively relates: "I did a great deal of taping this winter. I did not want the children in school on account of their sore throats, and so they stayed at home and taped shirts. They always tape before school in the morning, at dinner time and in the evening." Another mother declares: "My daughter (10 years of age) did not go to school for sixteen days this winter, because she had the mumps, but she taped shirts while she was home."

Some of the products of home labor have dangers inherent in them. The tearing of rags for carpets may have serious results, since the cloth used, frequently comes from the junk dealer's, or from factories that melt worn-out automobile tires, and that sell the filthy strips of cotton cloth that have bound them. The doctor of the public school of Rock Run reports that there are more cases of infected glands among the children of tobacco strippers than among the same number of pupils in any other district. The hourly and daily inhalation of any vegetable and fibre dusts by workers has serious dangers inherent in it, especially for young children.

The handling of a product that is conducive to bad habits has also its dangers. Children of tobacco strippers frequently smoke and chew. An investigator reports a child in York, at the age of 7 years, "stiffened as with rheumatism, with bad blood and with a tobacco heart. He has chewed since he was a baby."

Certain sanitary laws protect the minor employed in a factory, but the child that labors in the home works in a room built for living purposes,—a kitchen or a bedroom, which may be, but usually is not sanitary. Three of these children working at home tear rags in a two-room house that lodges a boarder, besides the mother and these children. Doubtless the conditions under which these children work affect their health and their habits. While it might be argued that they would live in these homes selected by their parents regardless of their participation in industry, still the home work undoubtedly tends to confine them indoors and to make the bad conditions bear upon them more heavily.

SUMMARY.—To develop children into strong and efficient men and women is an oft expressed ideal of the nation. To promote this ideal the National Child Labor Committee has pronounced its aim, as a standard for the country, to exclude all young children and all undeveloped children from the burdens of wage earning industry; to exclude children from all industries that menace life, health and morals; to limit the hours of labor of all minors; to forbid them all night work, and to guard their conditions of employment. These

standards aim merely to give the child a chance for normal development. Yet the State does not maintain the ideals given by the Committee. The laws require a prohibition of excessive hours of labor, night and Sunday work, insist upon certain sanitary requirements for minors, and protect younger children and those physically and mentally below standard. But it cannot give to the child who labors in his home this protection. He lives under the absolute control of parents who, sometimes selfishly, sometimes ignorantly, exploit him. Occasionally he even bears the burden of family support. He has no time for play; he has too little time for school, for if he goes at all, his attendance is always irregular. He does not even have sufficient time for sleep. Hour after hour he sits at a monotonous task that stunts both body and mind. He becomes a mere automaton, only a machine in an industrial process. His chief business—growth and development—neglected, it is no wonder that too often he enters maturity only to find himself a member of that class which is labeled as the physically and mentally unfit.

CHAPTER VI

OTHER EFFECTS OF HOME WORK

HOME WORK IN RELATION TO THE HEALTH OF WORKER.

—While much of the ill-health of the home worker may be traced to other causes such as age, or habits of life, there are ailments, which she reports, that one may also trace with justice to conditions due to her occupation. All of the industrial processes assigned to home workers require close attention and concentration, which give rise to eyestrain and headache; the constant bending of the body over the work in the performance of mechanical, monotonous processes gives rise to backache and nervous affections. These are the complaints most often heard from the home workers, or in more general terms, they speak of "giving out." One home worker says of her employment: "Its a good way to kill yourself by inches."

Most of the industrial processes of home workers are sedentary. They combine the excessive use of certain muscles with the entire disuse of others. A tobacco stripper complains: "Sitting so much gives me such pain that I can hardly get up." Another home worker declares: "I used to stitch men's shirts on a power machine at home but the work made me so nervous that I had to give it up. I like trimming hats better. Now I can get up once in a while and go to the front door." A taper of underwear spoke to the doctor in the neighborhood about her extreme nervousness. He, familiar with the symptoms of the home worker, asked immediately: "Do you braid?" To her affirmative reply he responded: "Well that's it."

The general tendency of the manufacturer "to speed up" a home worker aggravates these nervous affections. Spurred by ambition she often takes more work than her strength or her time permits. She fears that she may lose her chance altogether, or she wishes to appease a driver, who is anxious to get rid of his load, and who is irritated, if he finds that he has stopped at a house in vain. One woman declares: "Shirts worry the life out of me. The boss comes along and throws them through the kitchen window and says that he must have them at night and so we leave the Monday washing and do shirts." When the factory owner makes it a rule that goods must be back each day before five o'clock in the afternoon, the home worker keyed to a high nervous tension rushes all through the day to finish her job on time.

The work given out is frequently "rush work." An assembler of children's toys complains: "I do not like rush orders, as much of my work is likely to be, for it makes me nervous." One manufacturer gives his home workers, an additional one half cent a dozen for taping garments if they get out fifty dozen undershirts in three days. Owners of knitting mills frequently "speed up" loopers by similar offers.

Although other mill owners are not exacting, collecting the work once or twice a week and employing a casual worker who takes a bag of material now and then, yet the very custom itself of paying low rates for piece work and the uncertainty of the continuance of employment urges the home worker "to speed up."

Added to the risk of working at "high speed" is that of lifting heavy bundles, the handling of which both at the home and the factory is in itself a heavy strain. If the home worker must go herself to the mill, she usually considers the journey a very wearisome one. Sometimes two neighbors will cooperate. Many mill owners provide that bundles be taken out in lots of 10 dozen, 20 dozen, 30 dozen, or 40 dozen undergarments. The husband of one home worker declares: "I will not handle a load of more than 30 dozen undershirts," and yet many women handle 40 dozen garments at a time. The Arsenal gives out army shirts in lots of 10, 20, 30, 40 garments, and makes no provision for transportation.

There are, moreover, occupational dangers due to materials and processes of home work, from the responsibility of which the state frees the employer. Women complain that the bleach used in the finishing of underwear makes the eyes sore, that the acid used in the preparation of cloth irritates the membranes of the nose, that the fuzz released from materials by a moving needle, especially if they be of woollen, inflames the throat. In the making of overalls, the blue dye of the denim rubs off on the hands. One worker, with a misshapen and useless finger, declares it to be the result of a poisoning occasioned by the effect of this dye upon an open cut. There is much complaint of the dust and the dirt that rise in the process of sewing filthy rags together for rugs, and in the process of sorting scraps of leather to be made into children's shoes.

Practices alike unhygienic for the worker and for the consumer are allowed to go on unchecked. It is of ordinary occurrence among tobacco workers, even among women, to keep tobacco constantly in the mouth. Bunch makers and rollers are in the habit of biting off any excess of material at the end of the stogie, and of finishing the head of the stogie in the mouth. Therefore the wearing away of the surfaces of the teeth, sometimes nearly to the gums, is common among tobacco workers.

Testimony conflicts as to the effect of the dust and the odor from tobacco upon health. There are some women so sensitive to them that they cannot continue work with tobacco. There are others who, after a few days of nausea and headache, no longer feel the effects. Perhaps insufficient ventilation is the great danger to the health of the worker. As much air is not good for tobacco and cold numbs the hands and retards speed, workers with windows tightly closed, constantly breathe the dust laden air.

Authorities upon the effects of working with tobacco favor the view that it predisposes the workers to pulmonary tuberculosis. On the other hand some workers, with that confusion of cause and effect peculiar to certain minds, actually recommend stripping for tubercular patients as a beneficial occupation.

Home industries furthermore permit the uninterrupted employment of the pregnant woman. Need often causes her to work up to the day of the birth of her child. A stripper reports: "I stripped two boxes of tobacco a day when pregnant. The doctor says that the constant sitting in one position was the cause of my great suffering at the birth of my child." During her pregnancy, the home worker sits in a cramped position hour after hour, often at a sewing machine, which she treads with a ceaseless exertion of limbs. She carries huge bundles to and from the factory. She stands in line for work, often an hour or more. Lack of precaution injures the mother and handicaps the child before birth. Moreover the family accustomed to depend upon the earnings of the mother, becomes disorganized as a result of the brief cessation of her activities, and she therefore rises too soon after child birth.

Homework permits the unintelligent and often cruel employment of both the acutely and chronically sick. It numbers among its employees, a group of the physically unfit, of those who cannot endure the regularity of factory life. One home worker, who stitches labels on the yokes of men's shirts, has not been able to touch her head to her head for seven years, nor to walk for ten years. A coat maker has had an operation three times for cancer. A looper has been in a hospital for over a year. She is too ill to go to the factory and so the manufacturer has set up a looping machine in her house, for she has a brother, who is "not bright" and a mother to support. Home work sometimes permits the exploitation of the aged sick. An investigator writes: "The old woman lies on a sick bed, her whole right side paralyzed. She has made army shirts for ten years."

There are numerous other home workers in the list of those interviewed, physically and mentally defective. Among them there are a humpback, an epileptic, several deaf mutes, several paralytics, several who are blind, one that is a cripple from an abscess on the hip and leg, who goes about in a wheeled chair, one that has a skin disease with open sores on her hands, one that has blood poisoning in her feet, one that has a goiter on her neck, and numerous others, who complain of a great variety of ailments, many of which are chronic in character. While some of these people doubtless can and should have some kind of regular employment, home work offers no opportunity for intelligent care and supervision either in the se-

lection of the processes which they may safely undertake or in seeing that the work is not aggravating their condition.

What a menace this work may be to the improvement of the health of the patient, and what a danger to the health of the community may be seen from specific reports of investigators. The first four cases are Italian women reported by health authorities as having positive cases of tuberculosis.

A. A FINISHER OF COATS: "The home worker is a widow with five children to whom a charity society gives food, money, and medical care. She manages to turn out from twenty to forty men's coats in a week, at from 7 to 15 cents apiece. She lives in three rooms, kept clean but needing repairs in plumbing."

B. A FINISHER OF TROUSERS: "The home worker is a widow, too ill to work regularly, but with the help of her four children, each day after school, sometimes late in the night, she turns out a dozen and a half trousers and earns 45 cents. A relief society gives this family both food and money. They live in two rooms in filthy condition; the bedroom is a work room."

C. A FINISHER OF TROUSERS: "The home worker is a widow, with a son 16 years of age working in a phonograph factory. He brings into the family his earnings of eight dollars a week. The home worker has three children in school. In spite of her illness, she can turn out forty or sixty pairs of trousers a week at 7 cents a pair. The family live in four rooms, fairly clean, but they have no underdrainage."

D. A FINISHER OF COATS: "The home worker is the wife of an ironer of shoes in the factory. A son, 19 years of age, is a printer. Four children are in school. Both mother and father are tubercular, and the health authorities think that two children are likewise. The mother turns out fifteen or twenty coats a week at from 9 to 16 cents a coat, with help from her oldest daughter. The family live in three rooms, clean, but with no underdrainage."

E. A MAKER OF ARMY SHIRTS: The following is taken from the report of the health authorities: "The patient has a lesion of the right upper lobe, not active at the present time, but she will ultimately break down unless she is taken care of. We suggest that she give up work and be provided with adequate care at home until such a time as she can resume employment in safety to her health." Less than two weeks before the submission of this report, the husband of this home worker "died at home with chronic pulmonary tuberculosis and a throat involvement." He had been ill for over a year and a half, but for seven weeks could do no work and for two weeks had been bedfast, requiring almost the constant attention of his wife, who had to keep her young daughter at home to do the housework. During the last six weeks of his illness, the company for whom he had worked, gave her six dollars a week, her son brought her his weekly earnings of five dollars, and she made four and a half dollars a week by making army shirts.

F. A TAPER OF UNDERWEAR: "The home worker has had tuberculosis for three years, reporting that the upper part of one lung is gone. She has lost eight pounds, during the last year, and now weighs but ninety-two pounds. Working with a bottle of medicine and pills at her side, she tapes twenty dozen under-shirts, which are piled on the floor near her,"

G. A TAPER OF UNDERWEAR: "The home worker has had treatment for three weeks at the hospital. The doctor offered to send her to a sanitarium, although he says that he cannot cure her. Of late, she has felt better, and now is working at the mill. She also tapes underwear at home at night.

H. A MAKER OF WOMEN'S SILK WAISTS. "The home worker declares her lungs are half gone, although she does not cough as she once did. She was very ill during a couple of weeks of the last winter and still has a bad sore on her arm, but she had no doctor. She almost froze during the cold weather from the air coming in through the cracks in the floor of her bedroom and the leaks in the windows and doors. She works when it is possible, with the windows wide open and the shutters bowed for protection."

HOME WORK IN RELATION TO HEALTH OF THE WORKER'S FAMILY.—Tuberculosis exists among the members of some of the home workers' families:

A. THE HUSBAND OF A TAPER OF UNDERWEAR: The home worker reports: "My husband has a tubercular throat and cannot swallow food. He is unable to work at all, except to help me bundle the shirts for he is constantly under the doctors care. The only means of income that we have at present is from home work. We are behind with the rent and have twice been ordered to move. The landlord will not repair the house and the cellar is always full of water."

B. THE HUSBAND OF A TAPER OF UNDERWEAR: "He has coughing spells and is very thin and pale. The doctor told him that it would be a long time before he could get well. He has seven children and the only support for them is a small insurance and the earnings of the family from taping underwear. The three oldest girls begin work as soon as they get home from school."

C. THE HUSBAND OF A FINISHER OF MEN'S COATS: "He has an advanced case of tuberculosis. The friends collected enough money to send him to Italy. The wife is pregnant with three small children to support. The charity organization society helps her, but in order to earn a few extra dollars, she fells men's coats for a Jewish contractor.

D. THE HUSBAND OF A TOBACCO STRIPPER: The home worker reports; "My husband had been making three dollars a day, but about a year ago, he had to give up the work, for he had tuberculosis. We lived on our savings and stripped tobacco at home. My husband died in November but we still continue our home work."

E. THE HUSBAND OF A FINISHER OF SWEATERS: "Husband and wife, Hungarians, have both worked in the mill and are highly skilled in their trade, but the husband is dying and can no longer help his wife. The family have made no attempt to isolate the father. He formerly occupied the kitchen, but of late, being very ill, he has gone to the bedroom upstairs. Michael aged 14 years, who has been reported to the school authorities for non-attendance, is the chief support of the family. He works from five and six o'clock in the morning until six o'clock and sometimes eight o'clock at night. The mother works with him when she can, but attention required by her husband, the care of two small boys, 5 and 3 years of age, and the demands of cooking and housework, call her constantly from her work. The work room is a store, empty but for piles of sweaters and bags that have held them, which lie on the floor. The cold of the winter has drawn the family to the ill-ventilated kitchen in the rear of the store."

F. THE CHILD OF A RAG SEWER: A health agent of Philadelphia reports: "I find that the child is in this hospital, with a diagnosis of tuberculosis."

G. THE CHILD OF A FINISHER OF COATS: "One Italian family consists of a father, a shoemaker, a wife, a coat finisher at home, a son, aged 16 years, a tailor, and five other children under twelve years of age, including a baby in arms. One child is in the hospital with diphtheria. Of the five children at home, one has a positive case of tuberculosis. Health authorities think the mother affected. She has a bad eruption on her face. The family of eight live in three rooms, in which the condition of filth is intensified by the unsanitary state of the plumbing and insecurity of the building. The rickety boards of the kitchen floor look as if they might break through at any moment."

Other communicable diseases among the families of home workers are a menace to the community. Investigators report that there have been previous infections in the families of home workers of the following diseases,—chicken pox, mumps, whooping cough, measles, tonsillitis, diphtheria, scarlet fever, eczema, spinal meningitis and infantile paralysis. It was difficult to secure information concerning previous and present infections, since home workers are aware of the public attitude toward disease. There was a case of infantile paralysis during the serious epidemic of 1916 in the home of a taper of underwear. An investigator writes of a case of spinal meningitis in the home of another taper of underwear: "A child, 14 years of age, had been ill three weeks at home. The family consulted four different doctors who could not diagnose the case. The child died at the hospital a week later of spinal meningitis. The family sent all the underwear back to the mill, before the funeral which was held at the house. They continued their home work after the funeral. The house was never quarantined or fumigated."

There were several cases of scarlet fever in the family of home workers. An investigator writes: "When the boy was taken with scarlet fever the family was stripping tobacco leaves. The health authorities quarantined the members of the family for thirty days. Their employer refused to give them any more tobacco after the doctor pronounced the disease. They immediately applied to a competitor, who gave them work during the entire quarantine." A manufacturer in Philadelphia declares: "I used to give out collars and cuffs to be made by home workers, which the inside workers later stitched on men's shirts. But, once, when the work was not returned to me I sent for it. The messenger reported that in the house quarantined for scarlet fever, collars and cuffs were lying everywhere." A taper of underwear reports: "My boy had scarlet fever last

Christmas. I sent the shirts back to the factory the morning the doctor pronounced the disease before the officer put the sign on the door."

There is further danger of transmission of disease since the law does not require that all communicable diseases be reported to city officials, nor do the poor always employ a doctor. Moreover, the sanitary conditions of a home after a favorable report may change in a few hours. An investigator writes: "Two children with the mumps are running about, while the mother tapes underwear." Another investigator reports: "The home worker had undershirts delivered to her every day, while the sign of chicken pox was on the house." A finisher of silk gloves replied to the investigator, when she was asked if her children were well: "My little girl has the chicken pox."

Not only is there a risk in having materials in the houses of those that have communicable diseases, but there is a risk of transmission of disease, in the handling of materials to and from the factory. The home worker often provides her own wrapper. Because of an inadequate covering, garments sometimes lie exposed on the floors of street cars. The output of factories has a wide distribution for final consumption. Manufacturers frequently report that jobbers all over the world, or five and ten cent stores all over the country, or well known merchants in the big cities sell the goods finished by home workers.

Some authorities claim that cloth transmits disease, and that there is no material so favorable to the propagation and preservation of germs as woolen fabrics. In the absence of definite knowledge concerning the transmission of certain diseases, precaution is vitally important.

Of special significance is the possible danger of transmission of diseases in army shirts to our soldiers. The Federal Government during the Spanish American War twenty and more years ago, saw the danger of home work. At the time, they inserted in their contracts for the Army and Navy, in the purchase of clothing from private manufacturers the specifications that, "all work including operating, button-holing, pressing, etc., must be done in a regularly organized factory, conforming to the factory laws of the state."¹ The United States Arsenal did take the precaution to fumigate garments a second time in addition to the first fumigation by the health au-

¹Report of the United States Industrial Commission Vol. XIX 1902, page 745-6.

thorities, in cases where the bureau of health discovered contagious diseases.

SANITARY CONDITIONS IN HOMES.—There is probably great danger in the transmission of disease, because of the presence of all kinds of vermin in the houses of home workers. An investigator writes: "I am visiting this home worker in the evening. She is taping underwear under a poor lamp light. The husband lies on the couch sick with rheumatism. A sallow baby is crying in a couch. A disgusting, dirty dog is rubbing his nose over the undershirts. A little girl, two years of age, with sore and swollen eyelids, is wandering about. The mill owner has taken work from this woman because he found vermin upon undershirts that she had finished. She is now working upon the garments of a neighbor." A second investigator reports: "The home worker tapes underwear instead of taking care of her home and her children. The house is littered with old rags and soiled clothes. Garbage is thrown in the stream back of the house. Ashes are all over the yard."

Home workers keep materials everywhere, usually on chairs, tables, or beds, but even on the ice box, on the mantelpiece, and in the kitchen cupboard. "Huge piles of garments must of necessity often lie exposed on the floors of filthy kitchens and bedrooms, since there is no other place to put them.

There are houses where the family attempts to keep up a standard of living. Home workers often apologize for their untidy houses. One woman with justice declares: "It's hard to keep a home and children in proper order and do taping." Certain processes in themselves, such as the stripping of tobacco, the sorting of leather scraps, the sewing of filthy rags, of necessity, give rise to much dust, danger, and disorder in the homes.

Habits of life are found among home workers which lead to a general lowering of the standard of living. A home worker confesses: "My husband objects to my sorting leather scraps, because I do not take care of the house, or keep the children as clean and neat, as I should."

Few families have a workroom where they can do home work without coming into contact with food and worn clothing. According to Table XXV, of the home workers reporting (1024), only 4 per cent (42) have a special sewing room. Five per cent (46) of them do their work in the objectionable bedroom. They are chiefly garment finishers, but two of them are tobacco strippers. Fifty-five per cent (560) of them do their work in the kitchen,—the usual workroom.

The home worker suffers the discomfort of having to combine a workroom and a living room. She must stand the litter arising from piles of half sewn garments, or heaps of carpet rags, or bolts of silk, with sewing machines, or reels, or frames. She must often

TABLE XXV.
ROOMS IN WHICH HOME WORKERS WORK

Rooms used for home work.	Number of home workers
NUMBER REPORTING	1024*
Kitchen	560
Dining-room	215
Parlor	124
Bedroom	46
Workroom	42
Other rooms	37

*Not reported 89

endure the constant noise of a moving machine. From this confusion she never escapes, but suffers the depression of always being in this workers must use artificial lights in the daytime. Conspicuous are A maker of American flags reports that because of complaints, her landlord had notified her that she could not use his house for a factory.

Workrooms are sometimes poorly lighted. In basements and attics, workers must use artificial lights in the daytime. Conspicuous are the stogie workshops of Pittsburgh, almost universally illuminated by dazzling gas lights, unprotected by shades. But workrooms have usually good natural light, except in a few dwellings in the large cities where houses are very close to one another.

Ventilation is often poor. Tobacco strippers and stogie makers have windows nearly always closed. Very dreary indeed are the basement workshops. In one case, an investigator writes of a laundry fitted up as a box factory where one girl operates a machine. "It is a raw and rainy September day. This basement workshop is damp and uncomfortable. The children (17, 15, 13, and 11 years of age), are finishing boxes, and optimistically declare, that they like the work. But even where no necessity arises, families often show an aversion to fresh air.

Heating adds to the problem of ventilation. The gas stove customarily used in western Pennsylvania renders the air in an ill-ventilated room stifling. In the cold of the winter when poverty limits the supply of heat, workers keep their houses closely shut up. The poor of the city had great difficulty in securing coal during the years of the war. They bought it as needed from the peddlers and from the coal yards by the bucketful. In their working life, many of these home workers do not have the minimum standards of comfort required by law in factories.

As might be expected home workers sometimes lack ordinary sanitary requisites. Not only are the most necessary arrangements for sanitation lacking in the country dwellings, but even in many of the houses of the cities. In Philadelphia, surface drainage frequently exists,—that is drain pipes empty waste water into street gutters and some houses do not even have that provision. In one Italian dwelling in Philadelphia, visited in the course of the study, there was not even a sink in the house. A hydrant was in the yard. Waste water was thrown out of the back door. Moreover as renters of cheap houses, home workers live in dwellings out of repair. An investigator writes: "The house belongs to the tag factory next door. It is in miserable condition. The floor is uneven, full of cracks, and damp. The plastering is falling from the walls. The owner will do nothing to improve it."

Congestion of dwellers in households was not found to be a serious problem, but in home workers' families, a few cases of overcrowding did exist. As shown in Table XXVI, in each of two dwellings of three rooms, live nine people; in each of three dwellings of two

TABLE XXVI.
NUMBER OF ROOMS IN HOUSES OF HOME WORKERS WITH
NUMBER OF OCCUPANTS.

Size of house	Number of houses having specified number of occupants									
	Total	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9 or more
NUMBER REPORTING	*1038	37	120	162	172	181	138	105	58	65
1 room	12	5	5	2						
2 rooms	12	8	10	6	7?	5	3	3		
3 rooms	49	4	7	8	7	6	6	7	2	2
4 rooms	106	5	19	11	16	21	13	10	7	4
5 rooms	131	1	20	22	25	17	16	12	9	9
6 rooms	291	10	30	58	46	53	33	24	18	19
7 rooms	158	4	12	22	32	28	25	17	9	9
8 rooms	121		10	19	19	22	20	16	8	7
9 rooms	58		3	8	13	14	10	6	2	2
10 rooms	36		3	1	6	8	5	6	1	6
11 rooms	14			2		3	3	2	2	2
12 rooms	10			2		1	4	2		1
13 rooms	3					2				1
14 rooms and over	7		1	1	1	1				3

* Not reported, 75.

rooms, live seven people; in each of two single rooms, live three people. One home worker who sews carpet rags, lives in two rooms with her sister, three children and a roomer. A family of six people, who string paper tags, sleep in two rooms. The father drinks. One child has eczema, and another tuberculosis. Nevertheless, of those reporting, (1038) 68 per cent (701) live in five, six, seven, and eight room dwellings. In the houses of home workers there is an average

of one or two rooms for each occupant. Partially co-operative arrangements of living sometimes exist. Three Italian families with a total of ten members and two boarders live together in a single family dwelling of seven rooms. They buy their provisions separately, and all share in the rent. The women are tobacco strippers. However, serious problems of overcrowding among home workers are rare, since home work thrives to a wide extent in the country.

HOURS OF LABOR.—Many home workers have no clear idea of the time that they devote each day to home work, except that the work day stretches to the limit of endurance. Workers report as high as 14 hours a day spent upon home work. As shown in Table XXVII, of those reporting (940), 52 per cent (486) claim from 5 hours to 9 hours of home work a day. Many of them do Sunday work.

TABLE XXVII.

AVERAGE NUMBER OF HOURS WHICH HOME WORKERS SPEND IN HOME WORK A DAY.

Average number of hours each day.		Number of home workers
NUMBER REPORTING.		940*
Less than 3 hours		34
3 hours and less than 4	4	48
4 hours and less than 5	5	78
5 hours and less than 6	6	129
6 hours and less than 7	7	133
7 hours and less than 8	8	101
8 hours and less than 9	9	123
9 hours and less than 10	10	90
10 hours and less than 11	11	98
11 hours and less than 12	12	48
12 hours and less than 13	13	37
13 hours and less than 14	14	12
14 hours and over		9

*Not reported, 173.

Irregularity of hours of employment are due to the constant interruptions of other duties,—children, housework, and even boarders.

But serious problems of overwork exist. Many home workers can indulge in neither leisure nor rest. They earn little and must work many hours. It is the underpaid home worker who is obliged to spend much time on her labor. Often, spurred by necessity, she hurries through her housework, in order to be able to spend an extra hour at a tedious, monotonous task and thereby she increases the amount of her pay envelope a few cents at the end of the week. It is the pressure to finish a definite task of which many complain, and reports are full of evidence of early and late work,—of work before six o'clock in the morning and after midnight. While factory work affords definite hours free from industrial work, the home worker must often extend the hours of manufacture either at the expense of her own health or that of her children, or of her housework.

Naturally many home workers labor unsystematically, extending their hours of labor when they are under pressure to finish a job. They are usually under contract to deliver their work at a definite time. They do this with a vast expenditure of nervous energy during certain days of the week, by staying up late at night and "neglecting the housework." Periods of overwork are followed by periods of idleness. This condition of employment prevails especially in the manufacture of clothing but likewise in other industries. With an uncertainty of being able always to get work, these women often labor under a great strain for long hours together, when they have obtained an assignment.

The following statements of investigators are typical of the reports concerning the working hours in home industries:

A. A MAKER OF VESTS: "The neighbors say that this vest maker often works all night. In one day she has made as many as 16 vests without buttons and buttonholes, at a rate of pay of 11 cents apiece. She usually works from four o'clock in the morning to five at night."

B. A FINISHER OF EMBROIDERY: "This Russian home worker, a widow with two small children, cuts paper patterns from the embroidery on georgette crepe and voile waists. She starts at five o'clock in the morning and will work steadily until she finishes an allotment of material. She often works until two or three o'clock in the morning. She can only make four or five cents an hour and must take her time each day to go to the factory. Lately she could get no work two or three days in a week."

C. A TOBACCO STRIPPER: The home worker states: "At Christmas time I stripped 45 or 50 pounds of tobacco a day. I got up at four o'clock in the morning, and worked until ten o'clock at night, hardly ever getting up from the chair all day. I have four children and they help me."

Home workers escape from the benefit of protective legislation which has progressively reduced the hours of labor for industrial wage earners in factories. The home worker may lengthen her working day at both ends. She may work from early morning far into the night. She may take no Sunday rest. A manufacturer reports: "I did not employ home workers until after the state passed the 54 hour a week law." Because of this same law, factory hands may take their work with them at the close of the day, and eke out scanty earnings by working overtime at home. At night, at home, shop hands make artificial flowers, string tags, and for fear of being docked, mend hosiery that they have imperfectly closed. A manufacturer of hosiery reports: "All knitters take home work at the close of the day. It takes too much time to mend inside." A manufacturer of artificial flowers complains: "Home work is unsatisfactory. I cannot depend upon workers. If pressed, I prefer to let shop hands take home work and prepare it at night for the next day."

The home worker has no organization. An Arsenal home worker, however, did attempt to organize her fellow workers, but she made little progress. She only succeeded in acquiring the reputation in her neighborhood of being a "labor agitator." An Italian rag sewer in

Norristown actually induced her fellow workers to organize and go on a strike. They demanded 6 cents instead of $4\frac{1}{2}$ cents a pound for sewing carpet rags. The factory owner, hard pressed for a few days, had to drive about with a wagon and look for new workers, but in a couple of weeks, almost all of these home workers went back to work for the same wages. The lack of contact of these women with one another, their extreme divergence of circumstances and of interests in life make impossible any organization with a standardization of work.

HOME WORK AS AN ECONOMIC SYSTEM.—On account of the lack of industrial standards among home workers, the workman in the shop sees his position constantly weakened in his strife through legislation and through organization to uphold standards in regard to hours of labor, minimum wages, sanitary conditions of work, and regularization of employment. Trade unions, particularly in the cigar and clothing industries, have long recognized these effects, in their efforts to abolish the system. The home worker accentuates irregular employment of inside workers. The factory owner makes no attempt to retain a steady force of these workers when an army of home workers are always on hand ready to work at any season.

Home work is an antiquated uneconomic system of production. Home workers seldom used improved machines. They cannot derive the full benefit of a wage scale adjusted to inside workers in a well-equipped factory because in this day of electricity, no industrial workers can earn a decent livelihood by the use of a sewing machine run by foot power. Much less can they earn a living wage in the sewing of buttons, or in the making of buttonholes by hand.

They attempt to overcome the inadequacy of their appliances by the toil of their muscles. They will work more hours; they will utilize the labor of the whole family even that of little children. Moreover, the manufacturers of underwear have such an abundance of cheap labor in homes to do taping by hand that the machine in the factory does not pay. There is danger that the manufacturer will rely upon the exploitation of unprotected women and upon antiquated methods of production to reduce costs, rather than upon efficiency in the organization of workers, and effectiveness of modern equipment.

The factory owner himself suffers from the inefficiency of the system of home work. The output of a factory has the advantage of regularity and reliability. In quantity it relatively is greater and in quality it is superior, to that of a home workshop. A manufacturer of silk goods complains: "We cannot get the odor of sauerkraut out of the silk that is picked in houses." A manufacturer of cigar boxes says: "It is very inconvenient to transport this bulk of material. Often a label is missing. We lose time in getting a new one printed

and sending it to the woman in her home. The home worker, unsupervised, is slower and she often holds up a shipment." A manufacturer of hosiery claims: "Sometimes we lose stockings which home workers take out and never return to us." A manufacturer of sweaters declares: "We run our chances in giving out sweaters, since each bundle of our garments is worth \$60." A manufacturer of men's shirts reports: "Often the products of the home worker are not uniform. Some women tailor much better than others." One factory owner employs a forewoman who visits the home workers and instructs them in the processes of stripping tobacco and in labeling cigar boxes. But there is seldom supervision or inspection of work during manufacture, and although the factory owner saves this expense, the output is therefore inferior to that of the factory. Sometimes it is a complete loss.

Efficiency and profit do not come from a system of industrial organization which compels the journeying of as many as one thousand or more workers each week to a factory to secure work, often with a loss of half a day of time. This expenditure of energy is increased by the requirement to wait while the materials are gathered together, or stand in line perhaps an hour or more after arrival, and to carry huge bundles of thirty or forty dozen garments. Is there not vast room for improvement, solely from the standpoint of productive efficiency, in a system that often requires the whole output of a factory to be distributed, sometimes more than once, in small allotments from house to house, and to be gathered again and brought back to the factory? Who suffers from the lack of economy in making human beings beasts of burden? The home worker gives her time and energy for a pitifully small return. Thus it is she who pays for this inefficient distribution of work, either in reduced wages, or in an over expenditure of strength with a loss of much time.

Sometimes home work is adopted as a method of pensioning. Many factory owners disapprove of home work upon principle, and only use the system "out of courtesy to former employees that desire to make use of some of their spare time in this manner." One manufacturer declares: "I have no wage scale. My foreman goes to the houses of home workers and pays wages in accordance with the needs of the family. Half of their products I burn,—all of those that come from tubercular homes." Another manufacturer reports: "I distribute carpet rags to be sewed. I take great care to give the needy people in the locality the preference." The United States Arsenal as far back as the Civil War used the system of home work in order to give support to the families of deceased soldiers. But even as a philanthropic enterprise is home work not a failure?

CHAPTER VII

CONCLUSION.

SUMMARY OF EFFECTS OF HOME WORK.—An enumeration of the conditions of home work and its influence on the worker, her family, and the community, point to a detrimental effect with relatively few compensating benefits.

Industrial home work is harmful to the health of the worker; workrooms are congested, and poorly ventilated, heated, and lighted; hours of labor of home workers are excessive with periods of great overstrain; the performance of processes, handling of materials, and transportation of heavy bundles are dangerous to the unprotected home worker.

Industrial home work is destructive to family welfare. The home becomes a factory annex where material for manufacture come in contact with food and worn clothing. Goods of various kinds,—sometimes the collection of junk dealers, or the waste of factories, offensive because of the odor, the filth, and the dust, fill the family living room, usually the kitchen, overcrowded also with machines and appliances for manufacture. The labor force in the workroom may include the whole family. Nearly one half of the home workers have help in manufacture. The old and the physically and mentally unfit are drawn into service.

Children more than all others suffer under a system of home work. Even before they are old enough to enter the school room, they work hard on these industrial processes. They carry heavy bundles to and from the factory. Engaged in industrial work, many of them have no time for play, are slack in attendance and backward in their work in school. They grow up mentally and physically unfit.

Industrial home work is a danger to the health of the community. Home workers or members of their families frequently suffer from communicable diseases. Homes infected with filth and vermin are workshops for the manufacture of a huge output of clothing and numerous other kinds of goods. These conditions, as well as exposure of materials on the streets, with unsanitary contract shops as depositories, accentuate the dangers of contagion to the public.

Industrial home work offers a low wage scale and, in spite of the fact that family groups often cooperate in production, it nets but scanty earnings. Occasionally, rates of pay given to home workers are less than those given to factory workers for identical processes. Usually, however, factory workers do not perform the same operations as home workers. Manufacturers designate them as "too tedious," home workers, as "too poor pay," for inside hands. This discrimination would seem to indicate that manufacturers sometimes employ

home workers because they will accept wages and conditions of work that full-time employees in a factory refuse. Furthermore, overhead charges, which legitimately belong to the factory owner, middlemen's profits, lack of labor saving equipment in houses, loss of time in calling for and in delivering goods, irregularity of employment, competition of a plentiful labor supply, and isolation and non-unionization of workers, are the causes of reduced earnings.

Industrial home work weakens the position of the employee in the factory. The home worker underbids wages, unconsciously perhaps, for in her dependency, she takes whatever a factory owner may offer her. She thereby lessens the opportunity of the factory worker for full time employment. She frustrates the efforts of the public, even beyond the boundaries of her state, to safeguard factory workers in the restriction of hours of labor, night work, and employment of children and minors, and in the provision of minimum wages and educational opportunities for minors.

Industrial home work is a detriment to efficient production. The employer relies upon a cheap and unskilled labor supply instead of upon machines and other improved methods of manufacture, and upon efficient organization of employees. He uses outside workers as beasts of burden to distribute his output from house to house, instead of efficiently concentrating all manufacture within a single building. He contributes to irregularity of employment, for with a plentiful labor supply, he is able to allow the shortest possible time for manufacture, and to hire and dismiss workers at will. He makes assignments to home workers without supervision of manufacture, so that his output is inferior and irregular, lacking uniformity of production. He institutes his own methods of manufacture without conforming to efficient standards, even at times resorting to "out and out" manufacture in a day of division of labor. Under a contract system he frees himself from all obligations to his outside employees, unaware, as he usually is, of the true conditions under which he produces an output. On the other hand, the home worker in the performance of monotonous mechanical processes has no opportunity to develop skill through long years of experience.

In a system of home work there are but few compensating benefits. Women may supplement inadequate family incomes, even if their earnings are very low. The median rate is but 9 cents an hour. But more than two-thirds of their family incomes are less than \$1100, and more than one half are less than \$900. More than three-fourths of the annual earnings of husbands of home workers are less than \$800. Apparently, privation would result by the withdrawal of these supplementary earnings, however small, from the family income,

Furthermore, many of these women dread the exactions of factory life. The labor force of home workers is composed primarily, not of foreign mothers,—widows with young children, but of older married women of native birth, chiefly of German descent. The habits of a life time have not accustomed many of them to new adaptations and to steady application.

LEGAL RESTRICTIONS.—It would seem that state action is needed to help in the elimination of this uneconomic system. The natural evolution of industry will not completely rid society of it, as long as the factory owner thinks that he sees the opportunity of profit in the exploitation of a dependent group of immigrant and country women.

Three methods of procedure are possible,—regulation, elimination by gradual restriction, and absolute prohibition. Pennsylvania as well as twelve other states and some foreign countries have already instituted the method of legal regulation. New York is the only state in which gradual restriction has been introduced by prohibiting home work on certain articles in tenement houses.

Pennsylvania requires that the home worker who manufactures in whole or in part, clothing, wearing apparel, cigars and cigarettes, must obtain a license from the bureau of health, each calendar year, and must keep this license conspicuously posted in the workroom. In order to secure this license, an inspector must make certain that the household of the worker is free from infectious and contagious diseases, that the workroom is in a sanitary condition with proper exits in case of fire, and with facilities of ventilation to give each worker in the workroom four hundred cubic feet of air. The law further provides that the employer must require the home worker upon application for work to show the license, that he keep a written register of the names and addresses of all outside workers, and that he give out no work that is liable to affect injuriously the health and safety of the home worker herself, or the health or comfort of her neighbors. The home worker cannot employ workers outside of her family in manufacture. For infraction the law inflicts the penalty of a misdemeanor with the right of seizure of goods manufactured in unhealthy and unsanitary places.

The State Industrial Board has also ruled that the Child Labor Law of 1915 and the Act of 1913 regulating the hours of work of women shall be applicable to industrial home work.

Laws in other states restricting industrial home work are similar to the laws of Pennsylvania, but some of them do not require workers to have a license and omit other restrictions in regard to ventilation, the employment of persons outside of the family, and the register of

home workers' names and addresses kept by the employer. Others add or increase restrictions.¹ The law of New Jersey requires licenses for all articles of manufacture instead of a specified list and limits the validity of the license to six months.² The law of New York absolutely prohibits the manufacture of all articles of food, dolls and dolls' clothing, children's or infants' wearing apparel, in tenement houses. It does not require a license for home manufacture of collars, cuffs, and shirts, and shirt waists, which are laundered before marketing. Furthermore it prohibits the use, for the purpose of manufacture, of the basement of a tenement house that is more than one-half of its height below the level of the ground outside. It forbids the employment of children under fourteen years of age in home industry. It places the responsibility of illegal manufacture upon the owner of a tenement, requiring him, as well as the factory owner giving out work, to procure a license.³ The laws of New York, Massachusetts, and Missouri, provide for the labeling of goods "tenement made," or the seizure of the same, when an inspector discovers unlawful manufacture.⁴

The law of California is unique. The Industrial Welfare Commission of the state ordered May 27, 1918, first that all employers of women and minors shall secure from the industrial commission, permits to perform home work; second, that they shall keep a record of names and addresses of home workers, including the amount of work performed, and weekly wages and piece rates paid; third, that the piece rate paid shall net the worker not less than 21 cents an hour, this rate being based on the earning capacity of 75 per cent of the women working in the factory.⁵ The law of California, like that of New York, requires the factory owners who give out home work to secure the license, but unlike the law of any other state, it requires a record to be kept of the earnings of home workers and stipulates a minimum wage.

The application of a legal minimum wage to home industries while unique in United States, has long been in use, first in Australia, then in Great Britain, and now in several European countries. Argentina in South America has recently enacted this law.⁶ The system applied to a limited number of trades including home industries has been so far successful in Great Britain under the Trade Boards Act of 1909, that an amending act in 1918, facilitates its application to

¹United States Department of Labor Statistics, Bulletin 257, p. 164 (Cumulative Index, Sweating System).

²*Ibid.*, Bulletin 244, p. 237.

³*Ibid.*, Bulletin 144, pp. 1516-1526.

⁴*Ibid.*, Bulletin 144, pp. 983, 1181.

⁵*Ibid.*, Monthly Labor Review, February 1919, p. 193.

⁶*Ibid.*, Monthly Labor Review, January 1919, v. 300.

many trades.¹ To what extent the application of the minimum wage has been effective in the prevention of the exploitation of the home worker, investigation gives us few facts. Nor do we know how far the law by affixing wages, has decreased home work.

The administration of the law of Pennsylvania is inadequate. As shown in Table XXVIII, of the home workers reporting (1,041) only 20 per cent. (207) have licenses. A few manufacturers in Philadelphia and the United States Arsenal, which gives out army clothes, requires of the home worker a permit in accordance with the law, which reads: "Certified that this dwelling has recently been inspected and is free from infectious and contagious diseases." In other places the law is unknown. A home worker in Reading, when asked if she had a license, replied: "I have never heard of such a thing."

TABLE XXVIII.

LICENSING OF HOME WORKERS IN PENNSYLVANIA.

NUMBER REPORTING.	1041*
Home workers with licenses	207
Home workers without licenses	834

*Not reported 72

Even in the few cases where factory owners require a permit, officials give out certificates with a hurried inspection or no inspection at all. Of the 60 home workers reporting 68 per cent (41) say that inspectors have examined their whole house, 17 per cent (10), that they have examined their workroom or their first floor, and 15 per cent, that they have made no examination at all (See Table XXIX). Statements of home workers are startling: "The inspector looked in at the door said O. K." "The Bureau of Health does not bother to inspect when they know that you live in a good neighborhood." "One year ago I wrote to the City Hall for a license and I received it. The inspector did not come to the house. He said that he had seen it before."

The law of Pennsylvania further provides: "The permit, when issued, shall expire not later than the calendar year for which it is issued." As shown in Table XXIX, of the licenses held by workers (60), 25 per cent (15) are more than a year old. Some home workers say that they have obtained certificates as long as five years ago and have never renewed them. A maker of silk dresses reports: "The Bureau of Health requires no license after the issuance of the

¹United States Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, Monthly Labor Review, November 1918, p. 179.

first one unless it is for a special reason, as at the present time on account of the infantile paralysis."

Although the provisions of the law of Pennsylvania compare favorably with the laws of other states, in administration, they are not

TABLE XXIX.

AMOUNT OF INSPECTION OF HOME WORKERS' PREMISES BY THE BUREAU OF HEALTH WITH AGE OF LICENSE.

Amount of inspection	Number of home workers reporting inspection having held licenses.			
	Total	Under 1 year	1 year and under 2 years	2 years and over
Number Reporting	60*	45	6	9
Whole house	41	34	3	4
Workroom or first floor	10	7	2	1
No inspection	9	4	1	4

*Not reported, 147.

effectively enforced. Investigations in other states have revealed a similar inadequacy of inspection and supervision in the licensing system. This inadequacy in the administration of the law is due to the fact that the number of inspectors is never large enough to examine thoroughly the houses for which original licenses are given, much less, is there a thorough examination in the cases of the renewal of certificates.

The general welfare would seem to demand the elimination of this undesirable economic system, which entails so many bad conditions that the law fails to regulate. Immediate prohibition of all home work is not expedient in some parts of the state. In western Pennsylvania prevalent manufacture does not lend itself well to the system, and home industries are exceptional. But in eastern Pennsylvania immediate prohibition would work hardships. So deeply rooted in the industrial life of the people in the eastern part of the state, is this system of manufacture, that home workers and factory owners would find many difficulties in making adjustments upon short notice.

The exploited,—the mother burdened with household cares, the mentally and physically unfit, the old, for all of whom the state should care by means of health, old age, and other forms of social insurance, would now suffer if deprived of their scanty earnings, although this burden would be considerably less than is commonly supposed. In the absence of provision by the state, social agencies and city authorities should safeguard wage earners from privation resulting from a withdrawal of the means of earning an adequate income. With proper social treatment the mother with young children, and those unfit for industrial employment, should remain at home, without contributing at all to the family income.

Manufacturers should also be protected from losses because of the sudden withdrawal of a labor supply. They should receive notification of any restriction, so that they may have adequate time to place their production under an efficient system.

But once they have ample opportunity to draw their entire labor force in to the factory, with direct supervision of workers, could manufacturers not accomplish a division of labor, whereby they could utilize each worker in the most efficient manner? Therein is there not the possibility of arranging part time shifts for women who cannot be spared from home for full time factory work? Would it not contribute to the regulation of hours of work, to the organization of the labor force, to the regularity of employment, to the quality of output, if a few hundred steady workers, devoted themselves to a single task? Would manufacturers not save an enormous expenditure of time and energy, if they kept products within a workshop, until they were ready to market?

In the event of the continued use of the system of home work, the present method of inspection should be improved to protect the child in the home, and to lessen the dangers to health; provision should be made for delivery of goods to and from the factory; wage scales should be uniform for inside and outside workers.

The worker should be remunerated at rates that allow her to be self supporting. The public needs the unskilled worker, no less than the skilled worker. It cannot long be advantageous to a community at large to deny the right of a just compensation to each individual. The enactment of a legal minimum wage in Pennsylvania, applicable to home industries, would relieve the home workers of the suffering due to underpayment of wages.

RECOMMENDATIONS.—The law may accomplish gradual elimination by the prohibition of manufacture of certain articles, such as the law of New York provides,—food, children's and infant's wearing apparel, and by extending prohibition gradually to other articles of manufacture. The government itself would do well to set an example in its own industry,—the manufacture of army clothing. Families long engaged in home work, who cannot without much suffering change the habits of a life time and adapt themselves to outside occupations, might be granted a permit by a special commission, which would follow the case method of investigation, as a minimum wage commission upon application grants permits to the mentally and physically unfit to work below a legal minimum wage. The establishment of municipal workshops with modern and sanitary equipment, where women could congregate and perform industrial processes in part time shifts, would greatly facilitate the necessary adjustment. With the rapid extension of restriction the law would

ultimately accomplish the elimination of this outworn economic system, detrimental alike to the worker, to her family, to industry, to the community, and to the public at large.

SECTION II.

and APPENDIX

SECTION II

CHAPTER I.

THE MANUFACTURE OF HOSIERY AND KNIT GOODS.

THE EXTENT OF THE INDUSTRY,—The manufacture of hosiery and knit goods under the factory system persists in the home usually as a minute division of labor upon a machine made garment. In Pennsylvania as early as the days of William Penn the housewife knit red, blue, and green worsted hosiery for sale at the fairs and at the market house. In two centuries the manufacture of knit goods has spread from Philadelphia to the surrounding counties, and has extended to a vast variety of machine made garments. The housewife still manufactures knit garments entirely by hand. But the home worker busies herself primarily in the finishing of garments made by machine.

A large proportion of all manufacturers of hosiery and knit goods in Pennsylvania employ home workers. According to Tables I and II, of the employers reporting by means of the questionnaire (350) 42 per cent (148) use a system of home work. Table II shows a record of 2850 chief home workers engaged in this industry. A large number of them are on farms and in villages, although some of them live in large cities. Individual firms report as many as 175 outside workers. Manufacturers of Royersford and Spring City report 657 home workers. Each small town in certain localities, particularly in the vicinity of Pottsville, possesses one or more mills. The taping of undervests and union suits probably engages more women in their homes than any other single production, except that of the manufacture of army shirts. As shown in Table V, we visited 327 workers in 14 counties of Pennsylvania.

The output of these country factories has a wide market, as part of the stock of the general store throughout the country. Upon the labels of the garments we found the names of many prominent merchants. Occasionally a distant manufacturer buys the output of these country mills. In the manufacture of hosiery he may not only market the product, but he may perform the last process,—the dyeing. Furthermore the output of these country factories has a considerable demand in foreign lands, for a large proportion of the products bear the label for exportation,—“Made in the United States.”

KNIT UNDERWEAR.

TAPING OF UNDERWEAR.—The general observation that “every other house in town does taping” one hears frequently of these small villages of Pennsylvania. Signs indicative of this pre-

valent occupation are not lacking. One investigator writes from Pottsville: "I met this woman, coming down the street loaded with bundles of shirts on each arm, and a large spool of tape hanging around her neck. When she got inside the hallway of her home, she hung the bundles on huge nails driven into the wall." A second investigator writes from the same place: "I met this woman carrying home twenty bundles of shirts—forty dozen, twenty dozen on each arm. One could not see the woman, one could see only her feet." Little express carts, laden with huge bundles, drawn by small boys and girls, one sees everywhere in the streets of Royersford and Spring City. "The women have gotten the habit," the villagers say. "The well-to-do earn spending money, the poor, a living." Even the church societies have the craze. As an offering to charity, a group of church women in one small town meet to do "taping" one afternoon and evening a week. Thus the taping of underwear at home is the predominant occupation of many a woman in the small towns of Pennsylvania.

Taping of undervests and union suits is a simple process. A woman by the use of a bodkin runs braid in the lace or tubing of women's and children's underwear. Sometimes she ties the ends of the braid in a bow and clips them. The home worker may then earn a few cents extra by the sale of clipped ends to the rag man. Sometimes a worker in the mill performs the process of tying, where the use of a clipping machine facilitates the operation. The knot usually requires moistening to prevent loosening, and the worker may use either the moisture from her tongue or from a small saucer of water.

Factory owners declare that women in the factory will not do "taping" since it is "too tedious" and it can only well be done as "pick up work." They frequently designate the process as "night work", since it can readily be done, when the labor of the day is over. Consequently, many a manufacturer of knit underwear deposits his whole output of undervests and union suits in hundreds of homes to be "taped" before he packs his products for the market.

A mill owner may manufacture but one kind of knit garment, or he may manufacture a variety of products, differing in texture, in style, and in finish. The texture of the garments may vary from the coarsest of cotton to the finest of silk. The style of garments may vary—necks may be large or small, necks and arms may be taped or necks only. The finishing of garments may vary—tubing or lace and braid may be of numerous patterns, materials and qualities. Three patterns of lace are in fashion—split-bar, with a series of horizontal double threads; close-bar, with a series of horizontal single threads; and cross-bar, with a series of crosses, like the figure ten.

Three kinds of braid are in fashion. The home workers testify that all of these have their disadvantages. "Cotton braid is easily twisted." "Mercerized braid is stiff and hard to tie." "Silk braid catches on the hands, rough with heavy house work." Workers usually prefer the mercerized braid and the split-bar lace as the easiest material with which to work. They finish for the market an innumerable variety of garments of many materials and styles.

THE WAGE SCALE.—Processes and materials in the taping of underwear are so varied that wage scales are almost incomparable, but one may say with truth that there is an utter lack of standardization among mill owners in adjustment of a wage scale. The amount of time required by the manufacturer of a home worker depends both upon the processes that he assigns to her and upon the materials that he requires her to handle. All manufacturers, in their rate of pay, distinguish between taping of necks and taping of necks and arms of garments. The rate of pay, usually, for taping of necks is one half that for taping necks and arms ("full trim"). Some manufacturers base their wage scales both upon style of the garment and the kind of braid and lace used. Other factory owners base them on one or the other. Wage scales range from one cent to $3\frac{1}{2}$ cents a dozen garments for taping necks, and from 2 to 7 cents, for taping necks and arms. Rates of pay in the same locality often vary from one quarter of a cent to one cent a dozen garments for apparently identical processes.

The following is the wage scale of a manufacturer who requires home workers to tape shirts, to tie the braid in bows, and to clip the ends of the braid. The home worker calls for and delivers her own work, and labels each dozen garments with her name in order to distinguish her work. The wage scale is based upon the kind of braid and the kind of lace which is used.

Process in taping shirts	Braid used	Lace used	Rate of pay in cents for one dozen
Necks	Cotton	Split-bar	$1\frac{1}{2}$
Necks	Mercerized	Split-bar	2
Necks	Mercerized	Close-bar	$2\frac{1}{2}$
Necks and arms	Cotton	Split-bar	$3\frac{1}{2}$
Necks and arms	Mercerized	Split-bar	4
Necks and arms	Mercerized	Close-bar	5

This wage scale indicates that a worker must run braid in 12 necks and 24 arms, tie 36 bows, trim 72 ends in order to earn $3\frac{1}{2}$, 4 or 5 cents. One must furthermore consider the time that she spends in packing and labeling the garments, and carrying them to and from the factory.

The following is a wage scale of a manufacturer in Phoenixville, who requires some shirts to be taped, others to be both taped and tied. The manufacturer delivers and calls for the goods in an auto truck. The home worker carefully folds and lays out the garments, buttoning those that require it, and labels each bundle, —a set of three dozen garments, with her name. Here the wage scale is based upon the style of the garment, principally upon the shape and size of the neck.

Process	Braid used	Rate of pay for 3 dozen
Button and tape neck of high neck shirts (3 buttons) -----	Cotton	7½
Button and tape neck of high neck shirts (5 buttons) -----	Cotton	7½
Button and tape neck of low neck shirts -----	Cotton	8½
Button and tape neck of "wing neck" shirts -----	Cotton	8½
Button and tape neck of low neck shirts with extra large backs -----	Cotton	10
Button and tape neck of high neck union-suits --	Silk	10
	Cotton and	
Tape, tie and fold low neck shirts, "full trim" --	Mercerized	17
Tape, tie and fold low neck shirts, "full trim" --	Silk	19
Tape, tie and fold low neck shirts, "full trim" --	Ribbon	20
Tape neck of blind edge shirts (done with two needles) -----		9

The scale indicates that a home worker must run braid in the necks of 36 shirts, button 108 or 180 buttons, lay out and fold 36 garments, tie them in a bundle and label them with her name, in order to earn 7½ cents. These variable processes for a mere pittance in compensation, have the saving grace of being at least less tedious than a single monotonous operation.

Employers do not always consider important details of manufacture in reckoning compensation. Some manufacturers make no distinction between the rate of pay, upon women's, children's, and infants' underwear. Others allow ⅓ and ¼ of a cent for taping the necks and ½ of a cent for taping the necks and arms of a dozen of the larger sized garments. Home workers report that the difference in the time required for taping the necks and arms of small and large sized undershirts may vary as much as fifteen minutes a dozen garments. Some mill owners give no extra pay for the buttoning of garments, others allow one cent for each set of six buttons on a dozen garments,—one cent for buttoning 72 buttons. Some manufacturers deliver garments wrong side out and require that home workers turn them to the right side without extra pay, others allow ⅓ of a cent a dozen garments for the turning. Some

manufacturers require in addition that the garments be laid flat and carefully folded without extra pay. Others allow from one to two cents a dozen garments for this process.

The manufacturer has some patrons among contractors of underwear. We came upon middlemen in isolated districts many miles from their source of supply. Mill owners send out auto trucks or wagons ten or fifteen miles in the country. The drivers effect further distribution by turning over goods to contractors with their own vehicles whom they meet by appointment on the way. One manufacturer pays a contractor who lives in a distant village where he keeps a horse and wagon of his own $\frac{1}{2}$ cent a dozen for all finished garments. This middleman, in order to offset his compensation, lowers the rate of pay of the home worker below the regular factory rates $\frac{1}{2}$ cent a dozen garments. Women complain of this reduction which is considerable when they have only the necks of shirts to do. A manufacturer may pay a contractor the regular factory rate for the finishing of garments. But what this agent pays his home workers and who they are, the manufacturer does not know. Accurate information in regard to the compensation of home workers hired by contractors is difficult of determination, except in isolated cases by chance intercourse with these women far out in the country.

Occasionally, mill owners have installed taping machines in the houses of home workers, but their use is by no means popular with manufacturers. One factory owner in Phoenixville formerly provided these machines in his factory, but they have fallen into disuse and he has gone back to the old hand process and the employment of home workers. A second manufacturer has seven taping machines in his factory, and a few others in the houses of home workers. The operator starts them by foot pressure and runs them with a hand crank. The regular rate paid by one manufacturer for the hand process is 2 cents for taping necks of a dozen garments, and 4 cents for taping necks and arms. He reduces the rate of pay of those that have machines to $1\frac{3}{4}$ and $3\frac{1}{2}$ cents a dozen garments, and requires them to have an output of not less than 30 dozen garments daily. One home worker reports that she can tape 25 dozen "full trim" garments by machine in three hours. But a second home worker, who says that she is slower than other workers, reports that she can tape but three dozen "full trim" garments in an hour. The latter is little more than the accomplishment of a hand worker, but that the use of the machine is advantageous is conclusive, since there is the possibility of an output of nearly three times that of the hand process. The machine operator must still tie bows by hand and clip ends. A worker cannot use the machine for taping underwear

with a finish of close or single-bar lace, or of silk braid, but she can operate it successfully upon split-bar lace, ribbon, and cotton and mercerized braid. The machine is unpopular with the manufacturer. Hence arises in one's mind the pertinent question—has labor been cheaper than machinery? With a plentiful labor supply have manufacturers lacked an incentive to install new and improved machinery?

Manufacturers occasionally have need of home workers for innumerable special processes in the finishing of knit garments. They sometimes finish garments with tubing instead of lace, and thus facilitate the operation of taping. They pay $1\frac{1}{2}$ to 2 cents for necks of a dozen garments in performance of the complete finishing process. In addition home workers sometimes catch the tubing under the arms, turn in its edges at the front of the garment and finish them with a buttonhole stitch, and receive 12 cents a dozen garments. Among other operations performed in the home are the mending of imperfections in knit garments for $\frac{1}{2}$ cent to 2 cents a dozen; sewing buttons on knit underwear at one cent for each set of two buttons on a dozen garments,—one cent for 24 buttons; cutting labels that bear the name of a brand or of a merchant from a bolt of braid, and with the edges turned sewing them by machine on garments at the back of the neck for $1\frac{3}{4}$ to 2 cents a dozen garments; cutting out strips of lace for knit underwear at 2 cents a dozen; putting draw strings in knit underpants or skirts at 3 and 5 cents a dozen; sewing garter tapes and buckles on a dozen knit undervests at $\frac{1}{2}$ cent; stitching four pieces of braid on the bodies of a dozen shirts to form armholes at 3 cents. This enumeration of special processes in the manufacture of knit goods indicates the vast field of work that has opened to home workers in special branches of a single industry.

Home workers (without helpers) estimate hourly earnings from $1\frac{1}{2}$ to 15 cents, with 7 cents as a median rate. Wages in the knit underwear industry are among the lowest paid, but country finishers of men's clothing and rag sewers suffer even more from underpayment.

SILK UNDERWEAR.

The manufacture of silk underwear requires an individual production that gives rise to a higher rate of pay, granted to a select group of home workers. The following is the wage scale of a manufacturer that employs home workers.

Silk garments.	Process.	Rate of pay in cents for one dozen
Undershirts	Tape neck with ribbon and tie in bow.....	5
Undershirts	Tape neck and arms with ribbon and tie in bow.....	9
Undershirts	Stitch lace on neck.....	12
Undershirts	Stitch lace on neck and tape.....	18
Bloomers	Run elastic around the waist, fasten ribbon across the top and tie in bow, sew on patent fasteners.....	51
Chemises	Sew on two patent fasteners.....	24

Remuneration is one and a half and two cents more for taping a dozen silk undershirts than the highest rate paid for taping cotton garments. A mill owner may send to a home worker a bundle worth as high as two hundred dollars, consequently he must use considerable precaution in the distribution of work. He knows a home worker personally, or he hires a member of her family in the mill.

SWEATERS.

The assembling of sweaters, contrary to the usual processes in the knit goods industry, is a skilled occupation. The parts of the sweater are machine made. The worker sews in the sleeves with a worsted thread and shapes them, sews on the collar, sets in the pockets with a re-enforcement of tape and finishes the bottom of the sweater. Rates of pay vary from \$2.40 to \$3.09 for finishing a dozen sweaters. One home worker who earns the highest rate, claims that with the aid of her son (14 years of age) she finishes nine sweaters a day. There are minor processes in this industry that manufacturers assign to home workers, which do not require skill, such as sewing on of buttons, making of buttonholes, adorning the sweater with trimming or tassels, and felling the facing around the cuffs and down the front of cardigan jackets. But assemblers of machine made sweaters have usually had factory experience and receive better compensation than the majority of home workers.

HOSIERY.

MENDING HOSIERY.—The manufacture of hosiery affords simple processes for the employment of home workers. Often a mill owner deposits his whole output in houses in the vicinity of his factory. Home workers examine, mend, turn, count, pair, and bundle stockings. One manufacturer adjusts his wage scale in accordance with the size of the hose, and pays $1\frac{1}{2}$ to $1\frac{3}{4}$ cents for all these processes in the preparation of a dozen pairs of hosiery for the market. He sends them undyed to the home workers directly from the looper.

Workers may sort stockings with imperfections in piles, designated firsts, seconds, and thirds. Firsts can be mended so that their imperfections are imperceptible, and they are sold as first quality. Seconds are slightly defective. Workers darn the holes and carefully pick up all loose stitches with a drop-stitch needle. Thirds are grossly defective. Workers mend the holes without darning, stitching the hose on the wrong side with the use of a sewing machine, and trimming off the rough edges.

Manufacturers pay $3\frac{1}{2}$ to $5\frac{1}{2}$ cents for mending a dozen pairs of stockings of a mixed assortment. A manufacturer of children's hose, who divides his imperfect stock into firsts and seconds, pays $1\frac{1}{2}$ cents for mending a dozen pairs of firsts and 8 cents for mending a dozen pairs of seconds. A factory owner may only give out seconds to be mended by home workers. One mill owner, who manufactures cotton and silk hose, pays 5 cents for mending a dozen pairs of men's hose and 7 cents for mending a dozen pairs of women's hose—both of second quality. Rates of pay of other manufacturers for mending this quality of hosiery range from one cent to 10 cents a dozen pairs. Seconds are usually sold upon the bargain counter of general stores, but one manufacturer reports that he sells all his seconds to undertakers. Manufacturers may dye, press and fold stockings, before giving them to home workers to be mended. Darning is then, very difficult, since the worker cannot put her hand inside the stocking. She must take care not to hosiery, of cotton, lisle, mercerized material or silk.

Again one finds an utter lack of standardization of method, and consequently, almost incomparable wage scales. A manufacturer may have all hosiery mended inside the factory. He may have all hosiery or only seconds mended outside the factory. In addition to mending, he may have examining, turning, counting, pairing and bundling done outside the factory. He may make all qualities and all sizes of hosiery or he may make only men's, women's or children's hosiery, of cotton, lisle, mercerized or silk.

Manufacturers of hosiery declare that a system of home work is inefficient. They complain that many home workers do such poor work that firsts frequently have to be sold as seconds. They assign poor light in the homes as the most frequent cause of inferior work. When they put a guarantee label upon their hosiery, they use great precaution, that each pair of stockings is in good condition for the market. They deplore the double work that arises because of the necessity of carefully examining the mending in home

work, upon its return to the factory, but they declare that they are unable to get inside menders.

On the other hand specific examples will illustrate the burdens of menders of hosiery:

MENDER A: An investigator writes: "The home worker received one afternoon a mixed assortment of 125 dozen pairs of men's hose. The mother and daughter (12 years of age) together worked upon the load $4\frac{1}{2}$ hours on the first evening. The mother arose the next morning at five o'clock and gave to the work a day of 12 hours. The husband out of work, lent his assistance for 7 hours during the day. The mother darned small holes and caught up runners. The father and daughter turned, sorted and laid out the hose. The family spent $23\frac{1}{2}$ hours upon the assortment for which they received a rate of pay of less than one cent an hour."

MENDER B: A home worker testifies: "If my niece (13 years of age) examines and lays out all the good stockings, my mother and I can mend six dozen pairs of men's lisle stockings in an hour and a quarter." The mill owner pays them two cents for mending a dozen pairs of men's hose. The group earn 4 and 4-5 cents an hour.

MENDER C: A home worker complains: "I had a turn of bad luck. I only did three dozen pairs of stockings on Friday and it took me nearly all day." The mill owner pays her 4 cents for mending a dozen pairs, 12 cents for nearly 4 and 4-5 cents an hour.

MENDER D: A home worker reports: "I never know when the delivery wagon may come, but I must always be ready. I may work two or three, or four or five days a week. Sometimes the hosiery gets stacked up in the mill because the men are careless about getting it ready. Some men's hose have six or seven holes. I have to shut them all and when they are as bad as that I can't make much. If a worker has a friend in the factory she can get better work and make more."

Hosiery menders have difficulty in estimating a rate of earnings. One mender declares that she makes from 5 to 20 cents an hour, in accordance with the stock sent her. Workers (without helpers) report hourly earnings from $3\frac{1}{2}$ to 20 cents with a median rate of 7 cents. One mill owner, charitably inclined, directs his efforts in assisting poor widows. He pays the highest rate quoted,—10 cents for mending a dozen pairs of women's silk hose of second quality. Home workers employed by this manufacturer can make $12\frac{1}{2}$ cents an hour, and have quite steady employment. But hosiery menders are usually casual and irregular workers. Furthermore they cannot tell what an assortment will bring forth. The manufacturer with a cheap and docile labor supply does not feel under impulse to adopt a variable wage scale and adjust it in accordance with the accidents of his trade.

RAVELING HOSIERY—The raveling of imperfect hosiery in order to save cotton or silk thread is a home industry. A gunny sack of defective stockings which weighs about one hundred pounds is delivered. The worker cuts off the grossly defective parts of these imperfect stockings, catches up the thread with moistened fingers and continues to unravel past all flaws, until the thread runs smoothly around the leg. She returns the piece in good condition to be entirely unraveled. The thread, thus saved, is back wound on spools to be used again in the knitting machines. The worker returns all the waste to the mill. The mill owner pays her by the weight for pieces

that are in good condition, at the rate of 4 to 10 cents a pound. Two women, neighbors, to whom the mill owner delivers a bag of defective stockings once a week, work at each other's house by turn. They usually save about 53 pounds of good material from a hundred pound bag of waste, for which the mill owner pays them 10 cents a pound. They work every afternoon from one till five o'clock, except Saturday and Sunday,—twenty hours a week, and earn about \$2.65 each a week (13 cents an hour).

PULLING ENDS—Pulling ends is a process that one manufacturer reports as a home industry. The worker draws the loose ends of embroidered work upon hosiery to the wrong side, knots and cuts them. This process is much more prevalent among home workers in the manufacture of silk gloves than in that of hosiery.

LOOPING HOSIERY—Mill owners, unable to obtain loopers in the factory, in their desperation have instituted a unique system of production,—the installation of looping machines in private homes. They sometimes advertise their offers to install these machines free in the homes of those who cannot go to the factory.¹ We found them in Reading, Philadelphia, Norristown, Bridgeport, Womelsdorf and Elizabethtown, where they have been installed for as long as four years.

The looping machine takes up no more space than a sewing machine. It consists of a stand upon which a dial eighteen or twenty inches in diameter revolves parallel with the floor. The knitting machine leaves the toe of the stocking unfinished. The operator "sets up" each edge stitch by stitch on the points of the dial, as it revolves, placing stitches exactly opposite each other in the opening of the hose on the same point, as the dial revolves a cutter automatically trims the edges of the opening of the hose and a brush removes the lint as the moving dial with its mechanism closes the toe of the stocking. Considerable lint arises in the process, which the worker may breathe to her harm.

Some manufacturers give their old fashioned machines to their home workers. These machines have no cutters, and no brushes. The home worker must unravel the stocking by hand to get an even edge after it is in place, a process earlier assigned to the apprentice in the factory. Furthermore she must wind the ravelings on a spool and return them to the factory. Thus she may have the disadvantage of being obliged to use the discarded machine of the factory worker.

A home worker explains the scarcity of loopers to be due to the fact that the younger apprentices have almost disappeared from the industry, therefore new workers are not learning the trade. The child labor laws have eliminated some of them. Those that are left

¹Philadelphia Public Ledger, November 15, 1917.

lack the real opportunity of apprenticeship. The invention of the looping machine, which does the necessary raveling in the process of manufacture, has done away with the former helpers of loopers, who raveled by hand and turned hosiery, and who later became skilled workers.

One manufacturer declares that mill owners are making every inducement to get loopers into the factory, even going as far as to promise transportation by automobile back and forth. He also states that there exists a keen rivalry among mill owners in retention of old help and in strife for new help in order to make up the labor shortage.

The rates of pay of loopers except in small villages where one finds a depression, do not vary greatly. They range from 4 to 8 cents for looping a dozen pairs of hosiery. A bonus is often put upon output. One man gives 50 cents on each 190 dozen pairs of hose that a home worker gets out in a week. Loopers in home industry have as high an output as 250 dozen pairs of hosiery in a week.

Some manufacturers require home workers to turn hosiery after looping. Others do not, or allow a compensation from 35 to 50 cents for a hundred dozen pairs of hosiery. A home worker testifies: "Turning stockings usually does not pay, but occasionally I make a little extra money on a rainy Sunday afternoon." The labor of an old woman, or of a husband, or of a child, is advantageous for this process, as well as for cutting hosiery apart, examining them for holes, and bundling them.

Mill owners usually set up a looping machine in the house free of expense, and sometimes provide as many as two machines in a single house. One mill owner reports that a machine costs him \$90, and the meter with the installation of the machine costs him in addition \$30. He testifies: "We prefer inside work. We cannot afford this outlay of expense, but a shortage of labor drives us to it in our necessity. The goods do not come back promptly and therefore we use home work only in case of a rush order." The factory owner usually sends his own repair man to take care of the machine. The worker pays the bill for electricity, which averages from \$1 to \$2.50 a month. Some home workers have had their house wired, which has cost them from \$7.50 to \$17. In many cases the mill owner advances the amount to the electrician, which the former collects from the home worker in installments. Some women provide their own motors, which cost from \$20 to \$35. Others pay from \$2.50 to \$3.50 for connecting the machines. The electric company sometimes requires a special meter that calls for a deposit of \$5, which sum the company refunds in case of discontinuance of the use of the electricity. The overhead expenses borne both by the home worker and the manufacturer are considerable.

The looper in her home demands a competent wage. Some of these women have had twenty years of experience in a hosiery mill. All but one of them had risen to the rank of a looper in a factory. Loopers (without helpers) report weekly earnings from \$2 to \$15.50, with a median rate of \$6, and hourly earnings from 10 to 36 cents with a median rate of 24 cents. This median rate of earnings is more than three times that of finishers of knit underwear. In a week of thirty hours of labor one home worker reports that she can loop 150 dozen pairs of hosiery and earn \$9.75. In a week of 54 hours another woman says that she can earn \$12.35. This is a wage from two to three times that of the average home worker laboring the same number of hours. Factory workers call loopers the "aristocrats of the trade". Certainly among home workers they are in an unique position, for they are able to make demands for wages and for conditions of employment.

CHAPTER II.

THE MANUFACTURE OF MEN'S CLOTHING AND FURNISHINGS.

In spite of inventions,—sewing machines with electric attachments, cutters, buttonhole makers, button sewers, all of which have had their influence in bringing the manufacture of men's clothing into the factory, home work persists because the finishing of clothing remains a hand process, and furthermore because a housewife either possesses or can install a sewing machine, the chief appliance, in her house as readily as a manufacturer in his factory. To be sure antiquated methods of production,—the use of the foot power machine, hand processes in the making of buttonholes and in sewing on of buttons, the manufacturer is slow to eliminate when a cheap labor supply makes no demands.

EXTENT OF THE INDUSTRY.—A large proportion of all manufacturers of men's clothing in Pennsylvania employ home workers. According to Tables I and II, of the employers reporting (247) by means of the questionnaires, 47 per cent (117) use a system of home work. Table II shows a record of 2581 chief home workers in this industry, 2033 of whom make coats, trousers and vests, and 548, shirts. In addition the United States Arsenal employs between 3000 and 5000 home workers in the manufacture of army shirts,—an industry which occupies more home workers than any other single production. We received report of 852 chief home workers engaged in the finishing of coats, trousers, and vests in Philadelphia, and of 336 engaged in the same industry in two small towns in Montgomery County. City and country home workers thus live in large numbers in Philadelphia and the neighboring counties. As shown in Table V, we visited 328 workers in 15 counties of Pennsylvania.

MENS CLOTHING

PROCESSES ASSIGNED TO HOME WORKERS.—Manufacturers have assigned the making of men's trousers, as a production less skilled than that of articles of men's clothing, to home workers. The simple subdivisions of labor are cutting, machine sewing, hand sewing, and pressing. With the exception of the cutting, which is always a factory process, the home worker may make the trousers completely. The final pressing, almost always, and the machine sewing, usually, are factory processes. Hand finishing is pre-eminently the work of women in their homes. It consists of the felling or tacking of the "curtains",—the lining around the waistband, to the cloth. The home worker sometimes supplements the process by a preliminary basting of the "curtain," which, however, the factory worker

more often sets by a row of machine stitching about the waistband. Manufacturers frequently add other processes to the labor of the home worker. These may be the felling or tacking of the lining to the pockets, the felling of the lining at the crotch, the basting or cross-stitching of the bottoms, the tacking of cuffs around the bottoms, the cutting of threads, the pulling of bastings, the trimming of rough edges, the sewing on of buttons, buckles, hooks and eyes, hangers, labels, and tickets. In the case of cotton trousers and of overalls, the home worker usually completes the manufacture except the cutting, but sometimes she performs only such simple processes as sewing on of straps and bands.

In the production of men's coats, either light coats or overcoats, the subdivisions of labor assigned to the home worker are more complex than in the production of men's trousers. In this manufacture as in the making of trousers, there are four simple subdivisions of labor,—cutting, machine sewing, hand sewing and the final pressing. The cutting of the cloth and the pressing are again factory processes. The home worker may otherwise make the coat completely (including the cutting of the lining), or she may perform any one of the intermediary processes—the machine stitching, the making of buttonholes, the sewing on of buttons, the finishing. As in the making of trousers, hand finishing is pre-eminently the work of the woman in her home. She makes coats with and without lining. When she lines them, the worker fells the sleeves and the body lining. Often she supplements this work by a preliminary process of basting. When she makes coats unlined, she fells them at the armholes, sides, bottoms, neck, and pockets; and often she fells the under collar and sometimes the upper collar. Certain additional processes are frequently assigned to her. These include the putting of pads in the sleeves; the lining of pockets, the trimming of rough edges, the pulling of bastings, the cutting of threads, the sewing on of tickets, labels, and hangers. Overcoats are not in favor with home workers in spite of a higher rate of pay for finishing, as they are heavy and clumsy to handle.

The employer less frequently assigns vests to a home worker. However, with the exception of the cutting of the cloth, she sometimes makes completely the most expensive waistcoats. She may cut the lining of vests and do the machine stitching besides the finishing, but more often she merely fells the lining at the back of the neck and sews on buckles. Sometimes she performs the additional processes of putting in or removing bastings, making buttonholes, cutting threads, sewing on buttons, tickets, labels and hangers.

THE ORGANIZATION OF THE MEN'S CLOTHING INDUSTRY.—Makers of ready-made clothing in Pennsylvania either have garments completely finished under the direction of a foreman in their own establishment, or give out the whole or a part of their

output, (usually already cut in their own workrooms), to be finished by contractors, who agree for a certain sum to become responsible for the completion of the garments. Both manufacturers and contractors employ finishers, who may work either in the factory or in their own homes, or may work in the factory during the day and take home work at night. Distribution of home work extends to the native born women of the country as well as to the Italian women of the city. Frequently the country women are "out and out" workers as well as finishers. The manufacturer is the owner of the raw material—the cloth, and the completed garment. He may make men's suits and overcoats, men's trousers, or boys' clothing, and occasionally he may include in his output women's tailored garments.

The following statements received from manufacturers will serve to illustrate six different methods of production and will make clear the lack of uniformity of organization in the clothing trade. A manufacturer reports: "I make up all garments on my own premises." A second manufacturer reports: "I make up men's suits and ladies' skirts. I give out my work to three contractors. I do not know how many home workers they employ." A third manufacturer reports: "I cut out trousers in the shop and give them to a contractor to be made up." A fourth manufacturer reports: "I have my own coat shop. I give out trousers and vests to contractors." A fifth manufacturer reports: "I cut out men's suits and give them to my contractors, who have their establishments in the same building as my own. They have no outside workers. I give some work also to an outside contractor, who takes it to the country districts of Pennsylvania and distributes it to any homes where the women will do the work, chiefly in Bucks and Montgomery Counties." A sixth manufacturer reports: "I have no regular home workers, but in the busy season our own women take trousers home at night to finish and bring them back when they return the next morning."

INDEPENDENT FACTORIES OF THE CITY.—In Pennsylvania the independent factories of the city may hire a huge labor force of inside and outside workers. Thus the largest establishment in the state, which is in Philadelphia, employs over 1100 workers. From May to August inclusive, of the year 1916, the organization reports the employment of approximately three hundred outside workers, hired directly at the factory. The firm reports \$100,000 as the approximate amount of wages paid to home workers employed directly by them during the year 1916, and the exact sum of \$313,201.52 paid to contractors during the same year. To the latter report the firm appends the following note: "We have no means of knowing how many people our contractors employ." With an annual income more than three times that which the three hundred home workers receive who are hired directly at the factory, the contractors no doubt em-

ploy a considerable number of home workers, for these are known to be their chief, if not their only, labor supply.

In contrast to this huge establishment are the independent one-room workshops. An investigator describes one of them: "The workshop occupies the first floor of an old house in Philadelphia, where the owner and three men are at work. They make tronsers, even the finishing of the tops, by machinery, and secure the hems of the legs with glue. If the owner of the workshop receives a larger order than he can manage, he hires a contractor. If he receives an order for a quality of trousers that requires hand finishing, he provides for the additional process in the following way, according to his own report: "I go out on Christian Street and pick up a couple of Italian women that know how to finish trousers. I do not know their names or where they live. With each order I get new workers, for these Italian families move from place to place. I pay them 10 cents a pair to finish the tronsers at home and keep them until my order is made up. I employ these women occasionally. I have needed none for four months." Thus the independent factory owner with a small output utilizes the labor of the home worker as does the factory owner with a huge production.

The city contractor serves the city factory. He is usually an Italian, whom the employer values because he is able to respond to the element of elasticity in the clothing trade. He is known among the finishers most frequently as "Boss," but sometimes as "Frank," "Louis," or whatever his Christian name may be. To these finishers the contractor is the only employer. They often do not know the firm that he represents. Moreover, although on familiar terms with him, they frequently do not trouble to learn his full name. In the few cases in which he delivers the goods and pays for the work in cash, they often do not know his place of business. He is almost always on friendly terms with his workers and is sometimes a neighbor,—one that speaks their own language and lives in their midst. He goes in and out of their houses urging them to greater activity when the rush season is at its height. He constantly becomes acquainted with new applicants and keeps in touch with his old labor supply in order to be ready for each new seasonal demand.

CONTRACT SHOPS OF THE CITY.—The contract shops of the city vary much in aspect and in organization. Some few of these shops are well equipped, but more often they are in dilapidated and rickety buildings and are difficult of access, especially those that are used as places of distribution. An investigator reports of two of these shops: "The first shop is in a respectable business block in the center of Philadelphia. One enters by a rear doorway into a hallway, littered with papers and old rubbish, where rats have free access. The workshop on the second floor is merely a warehouse, to which

Italian women come and go with their work. The second shop is in a rickety building up an alley in the congested Italian quarter of the city."

Another investigator describes a contract shop of the city: "Some dark Italian women with shawls thrown over their heads and laden with men's coats, climb a narrow dirty stairway to a room over a shop. No sign of any kind indicates that the establishment is a place of business. In the front room tables are piled high with men's clothing. A few Italian women are basting the lining of coats before they carry them home to be felled. The contractor cannot speak English and he calls upon one of these seamstresses to act as interpreter. He lives with his wife and several small children in the rooms at the rear of his shop. The employer of the contractor assembles the coats at an uptown establishment and sends them in a wagon to the workshop of the contractor, where he and his wife distribute them to 70 Italian home workers, the majority of whom are finishers and a few of whom are buttonhole makers. The contractor returns the coats to the uptown shop for pressing and folding. The book-keeper from this establishment makes a trip every Saturday morning to the contractor's shop to give out the pay envelopes to the home workers. The owner of the uptown establishment is a contractor himself, employed by a large retail merchant, who has his own workshop where he makes part of the clothing for his store employing inside and outside workers. He hires in addition 15 contractors, both in Philadelphia and in the country thirty and forty miles north of the city, who became responsible." A cheap labor supply can be the only incentive for this inefficient and awkward handling of production.

While some of these contract shops of the city are mere places of distribution, others are actually places for the manufacture of garments. The latter are likely to be in better locations and in more substantial buildings than the places of distribution. And yet in Philadelphia they are usually in the upper stories of old fashioned buildings without elevators. The contract shop is overcrowded with stock, with unguarded power machines, and with workers. There is no cloakroom; the outer garments of the workers hang on the wall. There is an open sink in the workroom. The toilets are partitioned off of the same room. Scraps of material are thick on the floor.

In general the contractor undertakes the manufacture of one article of clothing, either coats, trousers or vests. An investigator writes concerning a contractor making trousers: "He has his workroom on the fourth floor of a brick building. He makes contracts with a number of establishments, but most of them with one firm. He receives 45 and 48 cents a pair to make up and press trousers,

after the manufacturer has cut them. He employes one machine stitcher and three to six hand finishers, and three outside finishers."

An investigator says of a contractor making coats: "He has his workroom on the third floor of a brick building where he makes contracts with one firm. He receives \$1.50 to \$2.75 for making up and pressing coats after the manufacturer has cut them. He employes seven inside workers and no outside workers, but his shophands take home finishing to be done at night after the legal factory hours."

CLOTHING MANUFACTURE IN PITTSBURGH.—In Pittsburgh clothing production is much more that of the small outside shop than that of the home, although both forms exist. Factory owners of Pittsburgh have a comparatively small number of home workers in their employ, the maximum recorded being twenty. The contractor makes independent bargains for work with dealers of both ready and custom made clothing. But instead of utilizing the tenements for home work, he more often employs women in his small workshop on "the Hill", or some other congested foreign district. Both the dealer and the contractor of custom made clothing sometimes employ home workers, who make vests completely except the cutting, and occasionally trousers.

The factory owner may also send by express to the country districts in the vicinity trousers already cut to be made up completely. Some suburban dwellers remember that this form of production existed as long as twenty years ago, and began with the manufacture of overalls. Manufacture of clothing is carried on in farmhouses and in small mining villages, which are often difficult of access. By traveling to the end of a carline that runs out of Pittsburgh and walking a half mile into the country, one is very likely to come across a country workshop. The family possesses several sewing machines and the father runs one. An expressman hauls back a bundle of finished trousers to the city and leaves the family a new allotment. Many others of German descent have introduced these workshops from a country where home shops exist in abundance as a survival of an earlier industrial system which preceded the advent of the factory.

CUSTOM MADE CLOTHING.—The manufacture of clothing has not entirely evolved from the handicraft stage, for the more expensive clothing is to this day custom made. The customer orders his suit manufactured according to his individual measurements. Seasonal fluctuations are always prevalent in the manufacture of custom made clothing, confined as it is to small establishments and to individual patronage.

Custom tailors of the city may employ both inside and outside workers. Often a home worker equips a room in his home as a workshop. An investigator writes concerning one of them: "The workshop is owned by an Italian. One gains access to it by crossing the living room of the family on the first floor, climbing a dark, narrow stairway in the middle of the house to the second floor. The tailor lives with his wife and three children in four rooms with a fifth room reserved for a workshop. The workroom has a large cutting table and numerous paper patterns pinned on the wall. The home worker makes contracts with a number of custom tailors in Philadelphia, making coats completely and pressing them. He is able to make two coats a day working at high speed from seven o'clock in the morning until ten at night. He works under this tension only when a custom tailor sends him 'rush jobs.' Last week the home worker finished 9 coats, for which he received \$44. His expenses during that week were \$12. His errand boy earns one dollar a day, and receives in addition from 20 to 40 cents a day for carfare, carrying work back and forth to the shop of the custom tailor for fittings and to the house of a buttonhole maker. She earns four cents a piece for buttonholes,—there being four to eight in each coat. The home worker provides his own cotton and silk thread. He works seven days a week in his busy season,—May, June, October, November and December, but he does no work at all in August, and during July and September he makes only two or three coats a week. During his dull season—after the fourth of July to the first of September, he sometimes makes complete suits for his own customers, or carrying with him a sample of his work, gets an odd job now and then by soliciting one shop after another."

Custom tailors in Philadelphia support many of these workshops, run by Jews. An investigator gives the following account of some of these shops, each of which makes but one article of clothing: "A Roumanian Jew, in his busy season, with one helper, has an output of 5 or 6 custom made coats a week at a profit for manufacture of \$6 a \$7 a coat. A Russian Jew with the assistance of a sister-in-law living in the neighborhood, has an output of a dozen custom made vests a week, at a profit for manufacture ranging from \$1.50 to \$2.75 a vest. Another Russian Jew with the assistance of his wife and son (13 years of age) has an output of 20 pairs of custom made trousers a week at a profit for manufacture ranging from \$1.50 to \$2 a pair." All home workers that make custom made clothes complain of the irregularity of employment with alternating seasons of great pressure of work and of no work at all.

The custom tailor of small towns likewise employs home workers. The peculiar costumes worn by some of the religious sects of Pennsyl-

vania furnish employment for many women on the farms. The Mennonite tailor is among the employers of this labor. Home workers in the country make whole coats, trousers, vests, and also finish clothing. They report a rate of pay of 40 cents for a custom made vest or for a pair of trousers,—a price considerably less than that of the city, which ranges from \$1.50 to \$2.75 for a garment. An investigator makes an interesting observation: "This home worker in Schwenksville is making the trousers of a custom made suit, and a woman in Zieglersville is making the vest of the same suit. Some other woman has the coat. Of special interest would be the determination of the range of distribution of many a suit of men's clothing in the process of manufacture."

MANUFACTURE OF READY-MADE CLOTHING IN THE COUNTRY.—The manufacture of ready-made clothing prevails in the country districts of Pennsylvania, especially in Bucks and Montgomery Counties. This production indeed has never gone out of the homes, and persists in its antiquated form, modified only to meet the demands of a new industrial organization. New firms are gradually superseding those that have long flourished. There are two home workers in Schwenksville whom one tailoring establishment employed for forty-four years, until it went out of business in 1908. The newer organizations of the county are not often independent factories. They are either branch establishments owned by manufacturers of large cities, or they belong to a series of small factories established in numerous villages which one corporation controls, or more often they are independent contract shops that bargain with numerous firms in a large city. The home worker is a very vital part of these new organizations, since she furnishes the cheap labor supply. It is her presence that has most frequently been the cause of the existence of these industries in the country.

The clothing contractor of the country may have his own workshop; he may have only a storage room; or he may have no place of business at all. There is a distinction between him and the independent or the branch factory owner, since he owns neither the raw material nor the finished product,—that is, neither the cloth nor the completed garment. They belong to the manufacturer with whom he makes his contract. If he possesses a workshop, it is like the typical shop of the city, with one room that serves all purposes. It may occupy an entire building, or it may share a building with one or more other establishments, or it may occupy the room over a village store. It possesses a small force of inside workers and a large force of outside workers. On the other hand, the contractor may have no workshop but only a storage room. He may be a city agent that drives his auto truck direct from Philadelphia, or he may be the teamster of the

village, known in all the country districts, who receives unfinished garments by freight from Philadelphia. He immediately distributes the garments near and far to the houses of workers. When the bundles of clothing are ready he pays the women in cash and sends the clothing back to Philadelphia.

Firms outside of Pennsylvania frequently employ the contractor of the country villages. A certain factory owner of New York City has men's suits cut out and the coats made up in his establishment, but a contractor in one small town in Bucks County makes up the vests while a contractor in a second small town in the same county makes up the trousers. Another manufacturer in New York City owns two small branch factories in Montgomery County, separated by six or seven miles. Furthermore, making of white flannel and Palm Beach trousers,—the product of a third New York firm, is an extensive industry in the houses of country villages and of farms.

All classes of country women welcome the driver that can give them industrial employment. The contractor distributes unfinished clothing along the country roads to various farmhouses, where, during the winter months, farmers' wives, daughters, and hired help, make pin money. Frequently the contractor stops at a prosperous farm. One investigator reports: "The home worker, who is 64 years of age, makes men's trousers. Her husband owns a farm of 30 acres upon which he raises corn, wheat, hay and other products, besides several hundred chickens. Last year he cleared \$1500 from the sale of grain and eggs. He kept his corn and hay for his own use and raised all his vegetables." Many other visits to home workers showed proof that it is not always the needy that welcome the contractor in the distribution of industrial work from house to house.

The localization of the tailoring industry in Bucks and Montgomery Counties is due to the presence of not only a cheap but a skilled labor supply. Many of these native country women have had a life time of experience in this industry and their mothers before them. Home workers in Schwenksville and in Lansdale of Montgomery County for example, have had more than 50 years of homework upon men's clothing.

Most of the women when mere children began to make trousers and coats at home either with the mother in her kitchen, or with the father, a tailor, in his home workshop. Some of them claim to have been sufficiently expert to make a coat when fifteen years of age. A home worker, who had made men's garments at home for 46 years, and who had seen manufacture in its early stage of handiwork, says: "I began to make men's clothes when I was 14 years old. My mother before me had tailored all her life. She made uniforms for soldiers during the Civil War, and completed entirely by hand two coats a

week. She received \$2.50 for each coat." A home worker in Lansdale, who, with her mother, made men's clothes when the sewing machine first superseded hand work and threw many women out of employment, reports: Fifty-five years ago I could get \$1.50 for making a coat 'out and out,' and I could make two coats between sunrise and sunset." A home worker in Skippack, who 25 years later was still making garments "out and out" with no division of labor, states: "Thirty years ago I got 60 or 75 cents for making a coat, but then I made buttonholes and pressed the garment." It is quite evident that the tailoring industry was well established as a home industry in these country towns and villages before the advent of the factory.

To judge from the reports received from the home workers, manufacturers have considerably reduced the rate of pay in the clothing trade as it has evolved from a home industry to a factory industry. As we have seen, the hand worker before the days of the sewing machine received \$2.50 for the making of a ready made coat. About 1862, when the use of a sewing machine became prevalent, the home worker received \$1 to \$1.50 for the making of a ready made coat. About 1887 when the clothing trade began to be concentrated in factories, home workers received 60 or 65 cents for the making of a coat. The manufacture up to this time consisted of "out and out" production with the exception of the cutting of the garment. The home worker made the buttonholes and pressed the garment. Today the home worker receives only from 22 to 45 cents for the making of a coat, but she does not sew on the buttons, make the buttonholes, or give the final pressing to the garment. These country women have not strengthened their earning capacity in spite of their skill, through a long apprenticeship, and of their possession of the trade for more than one generation.

We have records of 32 of these skilled tailors who make coats, trousers, and vests, "out and out." All of these women have had experience of 20 years and more, with the rare exception of one or two young tailors who have profited by the skill of a mother or of a father with whom they have served an apprenticeship. These makers of whole garments have considerable disdain for finishers and the ordinary factory hands that are engaged in minute processes. They hold themselves as in a station of life removed from industrial workers, and like the Italian mother, have a peculiar prejudice against permitting their daughters to work within a factory. Some of these women, grown old in the industry, have been reduced from the ranks of "out and out" tailors to finishers. They testify that their eyes are not what they were once, that they cannot see well enough to match the checks and stripes of cloth, and that they must finish men's clothing instead of making the complete garment.

An independent firm in Montgomery County, which reports 194 home workers, employs many "out and out" workers. The factory owner distributes material in trucks for a radius of fifty miles in the country. Although he employs a few home workers to finish garments and to sew on buttons, he requires as the great bulk of home production, a nearly complete manufacture of the garments. He pays 22 and 25 cents for making a pair of trousers (without the final pressing), 11 to 15 cents, for a vest, and 22 to 45 cents for a coat (without the buttons and buttonholes and the final pressing). A worker usually sews upon four or six garments at a time, pressing the parts as she proceeds. A home worker reports: "I make four coats of the thirty cent grade, in a working day of twelve hours." A second home worker testifies that she is never able to make more than three coats of this grade working "all days and all night."

A number of contractors likewise give out garments to be made nearly "out and out" but there is no standardization of a wage scale. That of one contractor is illustrative. He pays 35 cents for making a coat, 16 cents for a vest, 20 cents for a pair of trousers. Country women claim that they have made vests, (but for the buttonholes and the final pressing) for as low a rate as 8 cents apiece.

RATE OF EARNINGS.—There is a wide divergence in the hourly rate of earnings among home workers engaged in making clothing. A distinction likewise exists between country and city dwellers. The country finishers (without helpers) estimate their hourly rate of earnings to be from 3 to 16 cents, with a median rate of 6 cents; the city finishers, from $3\frac{1}{2}$ to 15 cents, with a median rate of $8\frac{1}{2}$ cents; the country "out and out" workers from $3\frac{1}{2}$ to $12\frac{1}{2}$ cents, with a median rate of 8 cents. The country finisher receives the least of all home workers engaged in making men's clothing. The country "out and out" workers, skilled operators, receive less than the unskilled Italian finishers of the city.

Custom tailors—finishers and "out and out" workers (without helpers) report an hourly rate of earnings from $8\frac{1}{2}$ to 49 cents with a median rate of 28 cents. The custom tailors receive three or four times as much as the makers of ready made clothing, but one must also remember that they suffer more from unemployment because of seasonal fluctuations with periods of work under great tension and with periods of idleness. County home workers employed upon custom tailoring fill in the gaps of non-employment by the manufacture of ready-made clothing of the nearly "out and out" variety, much as the first custom tailors did in the early nineteenth century during the dull season.

There is a wide variation in rates of pay among home workers, as summarized in Table XXX. We found no "out and out" manufacture

of ready-made clothing in the city and no finishing of custom made clothing in the county. But wherever a comparison is possible, the rates paid in the city are higher, and in case of "out and out" manufacture of custom made clothing, the divergence is extreme. There is also a considerable range of pay among home workers under similar conditions of living.

Factory owners and contractors use various methods in the making of buttonholes and in the sewing on of buttons. In the cheaper grade of coats and vests, a special machine makes buttonholes. Another special machine tacks them, or inside workers tack them by hand. In the better grade of coats and vests, hand workers make buttonholes. We discovered no buttonhole makers working at home among

TABLE XXX

RATES OF PAY OF HOME WORKERS IN THE MANUFACTURE OF MEN'S CLOTHING.

Kinds or clothing	Rate of pay received per garment of finishing		Rate of pay received per garment for "out and out" manufacture	
	In the country	In the city	In the country	In the city
Ready made	\$	\$	\$	
Coats, -----	.03½ to .06	.05 to .20	.22 to .45 ¹	
Trousers, -----	.01 to .05¾	.01 to .13	.12 to .20 ²	
Vests, -----	.002%	.00½ to .01	.11 to .15 ¹	
Custom made				\$
Coats, -----		.25	1.00 to 2.00 ³	3.50 to 15.00 ³
Trousers, -----		.25 to .30	.40 to .75 ³	1.50 to 4.50 ³
Vests, -----		.12½	.40	1.50 to 4.50 ³

¹ With the exception of the cutting, buttons, buttonholes, and the final pressing.

² With the exception of the cutting, the buttonholes and the final pressing.

³ With the exception of the cutting.

country dwellers. In the city we found that manufacturers of ready made clothing pay home workers one cent apiece for buttonholes, and custom tailors pay three and four cents apiece. Often a manufacturer of clothing employs an outside buttonhole maker when he employs no other home worker. Manufacturers usually include sewing buttons with other finishing processes, but sometimes they assign this operation as a subdivision of labor to home workers of the country. They pay these women 8 and 14 cents for sewing on a hundred buttons. In making trousers, finishers sew buttons by hand, except in the case of a cheap quality of men's trousers a machine attaches them in the factory.

MEN'S SHIRTS

Home workers manufacture men's shirts in large numbers, especially those garments that the men of the army wear. They make them "out and out" with the exception of the cutting of the cloth. In general, however, subdivision of labor is the method of the factory owner. He assigns each home worker a process. The operations performed by her are almost as varied as the employers themselves; and the rates of pay, adjusted to a multitude of processes, are difficult of comparison. As the manufacture of men's shirts is almost entirely a machine production, as power machines and special attachments are a necessity for an adequate output, private manufacturers have found production in houses expensive or inefficient.

Division of labor upon the sleeves of men's shirts is of most frequent occasion among home workers. They make cuffs with one edge left open in order that factory workers may sew them on the shirts. Cuffs are singly lined and doubly lined. The worker must often patch the outside lining, a process which necessitates the matching of the pattern of the goods. They turn the cuffs and push out the corners. One employer pays $1\frac{1}{4}$ cents a double dozen (dozen pairs) for cuffs singly lined, $1\frac{1}{2}$ cents a double dozen for cuffs patched, $1\frac{3}{4}$ cents a double dozen for cuffs doubly lined, and 2 cents a double dozen for cuffs doubly lined and patched. Another pays one cent a double dozen for cuffs with square corners, singly lined, patched, and unpatched. Workers gather the sleeves and sew the cuffs on them. One manufacturer pays $3\frac{1}{2}$ cents a double dozen for this process. Another pays 6 cents a double dozen for this process and requires in addition a row of machine stitching around the edge of the cuff. A third manufacturer pays 7 cents a double dozen for this process and requires a double row of stitching across the top in imitation of a turned cuff. Workers sew plackets on sleeves of men's shirts for which an employer pays $6\frac{1}{2}$ cents a double dozen sleeves. Again women make the complete sleeve of the shirt for which an employer pays 88 cents a hundred pairs of sleeves (about $10\frac{1}{2}$ cents a double dozen.) When the cuffs of the sleeves have a double row of machine stitching around their edge, he pays 92 cents a hundred pairs of sleeves (about $11\frac{1}{2}$ cents a double dozen.) Women also make sleeves of half length with a simple hem around the bottom for sport shirts. One manufacturer pays $4\frac{3}{4}$ cents a double dozen sleeves. It is worthy of remark that in the production of pairs of sleeves or parts of sleeves the worker must use great precaution to keep those that belong to the right separate from those that belong to the left of the garment. The basis for the adjustment of the wage scale varies from the whole sleeve to each part of a sleeve and continues in its adjustment to styles of sleeves and styles of parts of sleeves.

The finishing of necks of men's shirts affords simple processes for home workers. They stitch neckbands on shirts, receiving 4 to 5 cents a dozen. They also make sport collars with one edge left open in order that factory workers may sew them on the body of the shirt. These collars, like cuffs, they singly line and doubly line, with the linings patched and unpatched. They turn the collars and push out the corners. The rates are $6\frac{1}{2}$ cents a dozen collars, singly lined and unpatched; 7 cents doubly lined or patched; and $7\frac{1}{2}$ cents doubly lined and patched.

The finishing of the body of the shirt is also often the labor of the home worker. Under one firm, a woman stitches a hem around the bottom of the shirt and sews two buttonholes on each shirt. The employer sends these buttonholes worked on cotton tape, one hundred yards in a piece, and the worker double stitches the tape between each two buttonholes. She cuts off a piece of tape for each shirt between the double rows of stitching, and sews it on the hem at the front of the garment. The work nets $4\frac{1}{2}$ cents a dozen garments. Again home workers sew buttons on shirts and button them at one cent a dozen buttons. Another process is that of sewing labels or trade marks on yokes. Labels worked on cotton tape are sent in yard lengths or in strips of five hundred labels, or on cardboard sheets in rows of five.

Home workers manufacture ready made shirts "out and out" except the cutting of the cloth and the making of buttonholes and receive $82\frac{1}{2}$ cents a dozen (about 7 cents each) for garments of cheap cotton material that retail at 50 cents apiece, or 95 cents a dozen (about 8 cents each) for garments of fine crepe or flannel. The nearly "out and out" manufacture of ready made shirts by home workers is insignificant as compared with the manufacture of army shirts.

Custom made shirts are either of "out and out" manufacture (except the cutting of the cloth), or are made under a division of labor. **One man pays 25 cents apiece for shirts of chambray, madras, or percale, and 38 cents apiece for shirts of silk.** A second employer pays \$1.75 for a dozen shirts (about $14\frac{1}{2}$ cents each), without buttonholes. The buttonholes are made as a separate process and pay one cent apiece. Division of labor in home production is more profitable in the judgment of most employers, than the nearly "out and out" manufacture of men's custom made shirts.

A wide divergence exists in the rate of pay for ready and custom made shirts and for army shirts. "Out and out" production brings 7 and 8 cents for a ready made shirt (without buttonholes), 25 and 38 cents for a custom made shirt and 45 cents for an army shirt. In the last two varieties the home worker makes buttonholes either

by hand or with a machine attachment. The ready and the custom made garments are of different materials,—sateen, chambray, madras, percale, flannel, and silk. The army shirts are of flannel.

The hourly rate of earnings of home workers (without helpers) in the manufacture of men's shirts and their parts, varies from 4 to 33 cents with a median rate of 12 cents. The army shirts yield the highest earnings, since they bring a rate of pay 7 cents above the highest rate paid for a custom made shirt.

More than one-third of these operators upon men's shirts have their own power machines in their homes. The ceaseless treading of a foot power machine is so physically exhausting that the capacity of output in its use is limited and results in scanty earnings. Usually the worker bears the expense of the machine, the motor, and the wiring, and removes incurred indebtedness, running up to one hundred dollars, by the payment of monthly installments, either to her employer or to an outside creditor. Manufacturers report a great scarcity of labor and as in the case of the looping of hosiery, they feel the necessity of appealing to the workers by special inducements. Thus a factory owner testifies that the shortage of labor forces him to make an investment in equipment for home workers. A machine with special attachments for the making of collars and cuffs costs him \$75. He selects only steady workers with capacity for a considerable output as worthy of this outlay of money.

A system of small branch factories forms a part of the organization of the men's shirt industry. Many country factories are branches of large establishments within and without the state. One New York firm has twelve branches in country villages in seven different counties of eastern Pennsylvania.

The contract shops are less prevalent, and unlike those of the men's clothing industry, they undertake only the manufacture of parts of garments. One country factory owner employs two contractors, both established several miles from him in small villages. One contractor owns eight; the other, twenty-two power machines. Both contractors have built small sheds back of their houses, and relatives and neighbors from farms around about come to the workshop at will, and make at piece rates parts of shirts, which these contractors send to the factory owner to be assembled into complete garments. These contractors work for more than one firm, although they at times have contracts for a period of time limiting their services to one factory owner. In these two shops production is that of inside workers exclusively, who work upon parts of garments, but contract shops frequently make use of both inside and outside workers.

MEN'S NECKTIES, GARTERS AND ARMBANDS.

The manufacture of men's neckties frequently affords employment for home workers. Factory owners in Philadelphia report as many as 35 outside workers. They turn, line, and press cravats, and frequently sew a ribbon band down the back of the cravat by hand or make cravats completely with the exception of cutting the cloth. The complete process consists of both machine and hand work. A factory owner states that among his home workers are two brothers, who, during the busy season, have as high an income as \$45 each, a week. Finishers estimate their rate of earnings at 9 to 40 cents an hour. Their rate of pay ranges from 12 to 70 cents a dozen neckties.

Employers occasionally have initiated a method of production partly within and partly outside the factory by the same employees. One statement is illustrative: "We have used the system of home work for forty years. Our home workers take out three dozen cravats a day in the dull season after Christmas and after Easter, and from six to nine dozen cravats a day in the busy season. They deliver this work every morning at half past eight o'clock. We examine it, and if it is not right, we return it to them. Inside workers, many of them married women, may report at ten o'clock in the morning and quit at four in the afternoon, doing their machine stitching in the factory and their hand finishing at home. These employees have work throughout the year but the amount assigned to them varies greatly with the seasonal fluctuations of the trade."

Garters and armbands are also made in homes, the worker sewing the elastic and the catch of garters to a triangle of cloth. They also run the ends of garters through metal clasps and tip them with metal. Manufacturers give out a similar variety of armbands. For the first process one firm pays \$1.30 a gross. For the second process another firm pays 25 cents a gross for garters, and 22 cents a gross for armbands.

MISCELLANEOUS ARTICLES.

Other articles of men's clothing are also assigned to home production. An overalls factory in Philadelphia has 25 home workers, who make up overalls for 45 cents a dozen. Home workers also piece bands for cotton drawers and receive $6\frac{1}{2}$ cents a dozen. With additional loops for suspenders they receive $7\frac{1}{2}$ cents a dozen.

SUMMARY.—There are certain distinctive features belonging to the manufacture of men's clothing and furnishings. The evolution of the industry from the handicraft stage to complete concentration in the factory is to be seen at first hand, for all stages of manufacture and all degrees of industrialization are present in the industry. The custom tailor, the handicraftsman, is as much a part

of the organization as the ready made clothing manufacturer; the crude workshop, as the highly equipped factory. A nearly "out and out" manufacture in this day of extreme division of labor has survived an earlier industrial system, particularly in the clothing industry, which in certain districts has continued for more than one generation. The contract system, more prevalent in the clothing industry than in all others, has developed a sub-contract system peculiar to itself which entails the division of profits among middlemen. By means of this contract system manufacturers distribute goods for production more widely than in other home industries. Home workers often finish goods for employers outside the state. Among workers one often finds a diverse labor supply, varying from the finishers of clothing, who are almost exclusively the Italians of the crowded and congested districts of the city, to the country "out and out" workers upon men's clothing, who hold themselves in a station of life removed from common factory hands. These home workers receive rates of pay that are unusually small except in the government service (in the manufacture of army shirts), and in certain specialized branches, such as the manufacture of neckties, and they suffer much from unemployment through seasonal fluctuations, as well as from scanty earnings.

CHAPTER III.

THE MANUFACTURE OF WOMEN'S AND CHILDREN'S CLOTHING.

The women's and children's clothing industry has evolved similarly to the men's, but more slowly. Survivals of old industrial systems will continue, as many garments worn by women have never, and probably never will become standardized. The woman is not content as the man is, with a suit of clothing like that of her neighbor, but demands a garment distinct in its style and workmanship.

THE EXTENT OF THE INDUSTRY.—Only a small proportion of all manufacturers of women's and children's garments employ home workers. According to Tables I and II, of the employers reporting (212) by means of the questionnaires, 14 per cent (30) replied that they used a system of home work. But the enumeration of manufacturers in the Industrial Directory does not include a vast number of contract shops, a canvass of which would no doubt reveal in addition many hundreds of women working at home. According to Table II we discovered 1051 chief home workers in this industry, 444 of whom lived in Philadelphia. As shown in Table V we visited 66 home workers in five counties of Pennsylvania.

CONTRACT SYSTEM.—Nearly all manufacturers of women's garments patronize contract shops. A factory owner may turn over to contractors his whole output or only a special garment (such as women's tailored skirts), or a special process (such as the making of buttonholes). The manufacturer may or may not cut out garments in his establishment. He makes a bargain with the contractor for the finished products and releases himself from all responsibility. He may patronize the contractor regularly or only in case of a rush order.

Contractors of women's clothing are numerous in Philadelphia. Many of them are Jews. They have served apprenticeship as wage earners in factories and have later gone into business for themselves on a small scale. They employ a few inside workers and sometimes outside workers although less frequently than in the men's clothing industry.

The contractor has slight overhead charges. He has no capital invested in goods and no salesmen. He supplies only thread, and hooks and eyes. He usually occupies an old building; sometimes the first floor of an old house or a room over a retail store. His shop, like a contract shop in the men's clothing industry, is a single work-room filled with power machines, usually overcrowded, lacking in modern conveniences and good sanitation. A variety of these contract shops exist in Philadelphia, the output of which covers the whole range of standardized women's garments from kitchen aprons and middie blouses to tailored suits.

HOME WORK OF SHOP HANDS—A system of home work prevalent in the women's clothing industry is the night employment of shop hands. An employer reports: "None of our work is given out to contractors or regular home workers. The women in our shop take home work at night. Jews take home machine work on Friday night and bring it back on Monday morning. They observe their own Sabbath, but work all day Sunday in their homes, where they have installed their own power machines." Night work by shop hands is clearly an evasion of the hours of labor law for women in Pennsylvania, which permits but ten hours a day, fifty-four hours a week, of industrial work.

WOMEN'S BLOUSES AND DRESSES.

The following is an enumeration of processes with the rates of pay in the manufacture of women's blouses and dresses of all materials,—the largest production in the women's clothing industry assigned to home workers. They make silk waists "cut and out" (except the cutting of the garment), at rates of pay from \$1.50 to \$5 a dozen; they make afternoon and evening dresses of silk, crepe de chene, georgette crepe, chiffon, and other fashionable materials "cut and out" (except the cutting, the pleating, and the embroidering of the garment), at rates of pay from \$.90 to \$2.25 apiece; they make up blouses of similar materials, at rates of pay from \$.75 to \$4.50 a dozen. In addition to the processes of pleating and embroidering, inside factory hands may make buttonholes and sew on buttons and hooks and eyes. Outside workers also make up cotton dresses (without buttons and buttonholes or hooks and eyes), at rates of pay from \$.75 to \$6 a dozen, and blouses of cotton materials (without buttons and buttonholes) for \$4.50 a dozen. Sometimes they assemble these blouses after inside factory hands have tucked them. The finishing processes in the manufacture of blouses and dresses, unlike those in the men's clothing industry, are usually reserved for shop hands, while hands at home assemble the garments.

Women's blouses and dresses are almost universally made at home by dressmakers, who still ply their trade, now fast evolving into a factory industry and fill in a dull season with industrial home work. A woman reports: "I employ an apprentice at \$5 a week. We can finish a custom made dress in two days and a half and together we earn \$12 a week. In the dull season I still keep my helper and we make up cotton dresses for a factory at \$4, \$5, and \$6 a dozen. Together we earn \$10 a week." Some former dressmakers have given up their trade entirely in order to devote their time to the manufacture of factory made garments, which, while less profitable, is more certain than dependence upon a small number of customers.

Earnings of home workers in the manufacture of outer garments are above the average. The best paid are the makers of silk suits and afternoon and evening dresses. They progress in their assignment of work from the cheapest to the most expensive dresses. Workers (without helpers) report weekly earnings from \$8 to \$20 a week with \$11 as a median wage. Hourly earnings are difficult to compute, since work is irregular and processes vary, but these women report hourly earnings from 16½ to 50 cents with a median rate of 18 cents. Those employed upon other outer garments for women earn less money. They report weekly earnings from \$4 to \$10 a week with a median wage of \$6, and hourly earnings from 12 to 21 cents with a median rate of 16 cents. As an overhead charge one must consider the power machines, with which almost all women have provided themselves at their own expense. Yet earnings for making these garments exceed those in other home industries.

Frequent trips to the factory mean additional expenditure of time and doubled and tripled carfare. Only one firm in Philadelphia, for it is in this city that the industry flourishes, will make deliveries to the homes of workers, and that is at a cost to them of 50 cents a trip. Thus the gathering of the various trimmings of a garment from factory hands and from embroiderers at home, from one establishment and another, causes serious loss of time and much inconvenience in frequent trips to the factory on the part of the home worker who assembles a garment.

Minute division of labor and standardization of methods of production are less applicable to women's than to men's clothing, because garments of women are of a great variety in style. But even where standardization of production is possible, a definite method has not yet evolved, the manufacture of women's clothing being the last of the large industries to be placed under the factory system. These home workers, however, increase their output by working upon several garments at a time, performing the same operation on each garment after the pattern of a sample dress taken home. Occasionally an employer attempts a division of labor among home workers. They sometimes make belts, collars, or cuffs for cotton, silk and worsted dresses, or attach collars to blouses. They make skirts and waists of dresses, and shop hands assemble the garments in the factory. One firm gives out sleeves of cotton dresses to be made up at a rate of pay of one cent a pair. Women embroider and smock by hand parts of garments. They receive from 18 to 20 cents for smocking a dozen garments.—yokes, cuffs, or pockets of blouses.

Since fashion of today decrees that embroidery in silk thread and beads shall adorn crepe and voile dresses and blouses, home workers find irregular employment with firms which make contracts with

women's clothing factories to do embroidering. One employer for example, pays \$.85 and \$1.50 for embroidering by hand either a dozen collars or fronts of voile and crepe blouses. A woman makes about 10 cents an hour. To the unskilled worker employers assign more simple processes. One factory owner pays 8 cents for cutting off the paper and loose threads from a dozen embroidered pieces, and 50 cents for cutting out one hundred yards of scalloping. A woman makes 4 or 5 cents an hour. Both skilled and unskilled workers upon hand embroidered blouses and dresses are among the lowest paid of home workers.

OTHER ARTICLES OF WOMEN'S APPAREL.

The finishing processes upon women's machine made handkerchiefs and collars occupy many home workers. One employer pays $\frac{1}{8}$ of a cent for cutting off the loose threads from a dozen lace trimmed handkerchiefs and $\frac{1}{4}$ of a cent, from a dozen embroidered handkerchiefs. He pays $\frac{1}{4}$ of a cent a dozen for trimming lace, and from 2 to 4 cents a dozen for cutting out the scallops of embroidery. In addition home workers iron handkerchiefs,—flat, folded once and twice, and in fancy styles for Christmas boxes, receiving from one cent to $2\frac{1}{2}$ cents a dozen. Women cut out the scallops on machine embroidered collars of muslin and sew them on neckbands. Collars are in a single piece or in three pieces. Workers must assemble the latter. Scallops of collars are round, pointed, and square. The wage scale varies in accordance with these differences from 9 to 14 cents a dozen.

Miscellaneous articles are also made in the homes. One manufacturer sells a variety of black sateen aprons with two pockets, made completely, including the cutting of the material and the making of buttonholes, for 30 cents a dozen. Another firm pays 10 cents a dozen for making boudoir caps. On women's hand made cuffs and neckwear, home workers embroider designs or French dots and make feather stitching. Silk girdles and those articles of apparel that require much hand sewing are often the products of home industry.

IRREGULARITY OF EMPLOYMENT.—Irregularity of employment because of seasonal fluctuations is especially prevalent in the women's clothing industry. An interesting experiment has been undertaken by two manufacturers in an attempt to regularize industry. A home worker receives a ticket from her employer, which entitles her to work for the other employer, if production in her own factory is slack. But the cases in which manufacturers attempt to regularize employment are rare.

The rise and fall of popular crazes for certain styles and articles of clothing result in irregular demands upon the manufacturer and

in periods of overwork and of idleness for the employee. Within the last few years the one piece dress has superseded the fancy waist and skirt, gowns and blouses of crepe and other light weight material, embroidered with silk thread and beads have replaced gowns of heavy silk trimmed with lace. Fur garments have become popular. Fancy articles such as high necked guimpes and boudoir caps have had their seasons of popularity and of decline. Employees skilled in specialized processes must give them up to learn new processes from time to time. Employers must supply new materials and new equipment. They must frequently sacrifice old stock at a loss. Therefore they must make high profits while there is a market, to offset the losses which necessarily come in the adaptation of manufacture to new styles and to new seasons. As an example of this high profit, one home worker reports that she has made cotton dresses for 23 cents apiece that she has seen advertised in the newspapers for \$5.50. It is obvious, that both the employer and the employee suffer from these changes in fashion.

CHILDREN'S OUTER GARMENTS.

The manufacture of children's outer garments.—coats and dresses, prohibited under the law of New York as a dangerous process, is a home industry in Pennsylvania. Children's coats, unlined, lined, and interlined are made "out and out" (except the cutting of the cloth, the making of the buttonholes, the sewing on of the buttons, the embroidering and the final pressing) at rates of pay from \$1.50 to \$10 a dozen. The wage scale is primarily based on the material used: coats made of silk pay a high rate; coats made of cheap cotton cloth pay a low rate. Children's dresses are usually made "out and out" (except the cutting of the garment) at rates of pay from \$0.40 to \$3.50 a dozen. Hourly earnings of home workers range from 5 to 24 cents with a median rate of 7 cents.

The furnishing of industrial work to poor families in their homes is considered by some philanthropists a charity worthy of promotion. The Chamber of Commerce of Altoona has tried this scheme of philanthropy in the manufacture of children's dresses. Giving the distribution of the work into the hands of a competent manager, the Chamber of Commerce paid half of the overhead charges, while a manufacturer in the city paid the other half. After a trial of three months the manager submitted a report. Home workers received \$709.50. The overhead charges (rent for a distributing room and wages for a woman in charge) were \$250.25. Of the 253 women that asked for work, 60 continued it, 39 tried it only a few times, 149 finished the first lot of garments and took no more, 14 returned the work unfinished. Since less than one-fourth of the women continued

to take out the work and the overhead charges for distribution were excessive, the Chamber of Commerce and the manufacturer discontinued the system of production.

UNDERGARMENTS.

The quantity of machine stitching required in making undergarments renders the use of foot power machines almost impossible. Moreover undergarments are usually of a few standardized styles, which give scope for a division of labor in the factory. However, home workers do sometimes make petticoats, night gowns, drawers, bloomers, corset covers, bust ruffles, and sanitary goods. They either complete the garments cut in the factory or perform only a simple operation. A firm in Philadelphia gives out material for the manufacture of many varieties of rubber shields. Women pay a deposit for the material and sell the products by canvassing from house to house.

In the few cases where employers give out undergarments to be made in the home, the rate of pay is very low, 5 cents apiece for the making of flannel gowns, 40 cents a dozen for underskirts, 60 cents a dozen for corset covers, 25 cents a dozen for bloomers, and from 10 to 20 cents a dozen for corset accessories.

CHAPTER IV.

THE MANUFACTURE OF RAG RUGS AND OTHER TEXTILE PRODUCTS.

In spite of the early industrialization of the textile industry there are a few lingering survivals of a former home industry in the finishing processes,—the picking of silk, the specking, burling, and mending of woollen cloth; and in various processes of a number of branches into which the textile industries have divided,—the preparing of balls of rags for rugs, the manufacture of American flags, the cutting of machine embroidery, the splitting of machine lace, the making of sheets and pillow cases, and the hand embroidering of household linen. Preparing balls of rags for rugs is one of the largest of industrial employments assigned to home workers.

RAG RUGS.

The manufacture of rag rugs has persisted since the Revolutionary days when members of the family sewed them by hand, or wove them on the household loom with a warp of strong string and a woof of cloth strips cut from the cast off clothing of the family and sewed together. After the family loom went out of general use, a member of the community made carpets and rugs for the neighborhood. The industry has evolved like other textile industries into a complete factory system in which inside workers manufacture the thread carpets and rugs of today. But the village rug weaver still exists in many Pennsylvania towns, and the women from round about bring him their rag strips to be woven into rugs on a hand loom. Furthermore, where inside workers weave rag rugs on power looms in a factory, home workers tear, sew together, and roll into balls the rags that serve as a woof on the loom. According to Table II, we received report of 1397 home workers in 13 rag rug mills in Pennsylvania, the largest of which are in Carlisle and Norristown. As shown in Table V, we visited 51 home workers in 7 counties.

Several processes are assigned to the home worker, but her chief work is to prepare rags for the loom. She tears them in widths of an inch or of three quarters of an inch and sews the pieces together, sometimes by hand, sometimes by machine. Many of the scraps of cloth bought up from the cotton mills by rag rug manufacturers, consist of two end pieces of a bolt of goods joined by a chain stitch, which the home worker must unravel before tearing. She may wind the single length of cloth in a ball so that one end may pull out from the center, or she may wind it on a reel, slip it off and tie it in a skein. The latter process the women call "hanking." The length of cloth serves in the factory loom as the warp of the rug with a woof of heavy thread; or several strands of cloth may form a simple interwoven pattern similar to the braided rugs which, before the

Civil War, women at home made by hand. Factory owners occasionally employ home workers in rewinding lengths of cloth not properly rolled, in knotting by hand the fringe,—the last process in the production of a rag rug, or occasionally in weaving itself.

Rag sewers of the farms and villages have organized various methods of production. In the houses of the farms and villages the family often do "team work." One member tears, another sews, a third winds. Children perform these simple processes. In one family the husband tears all the rags in the barn in preparation for the sewing and winding in the house. An investigator writes concerning one rag sewer: "The home worker, a woman seventy-three years of age, has set a pole across the door of the shed in the back yard. She tears her rags over it and throws them inside the shed on the floor. Then she gathers them up and carries them into the old and rickety house in which she lives alone. Piles of rags, three feet high, are heaped up across the full length of the living room. Half of them are done up in hanks of two or three pounds each. A reel and a sewing machine stand in the midst. The room is filled with the odor of rubber."

The rag sewers of Philadelphia and Norristown are, in general, Italians, unlike the native rag sewers in other localities. Many of them are newly arrived immigrants from Sicily who cannot speak English. They congregate at each others houses, and often work co-operatively, dividing the pay. In the Italian quarter of Norristown, throughout the full length of some streets, one may see these home workers on their porches in groups, tearing, sewing and winding bright colored rags. Children, chickens, cats and dogs swarm the neighborhood. An investigator describes an Italian group of workers: "If you go up Airy Street to Johanna Pacelli's house, you pass through a gate into a yard, covered with a long stretch of cement pavement where three or four families live. Here a group of Italian women sit and gossip, while they tear and sew red, blue, and other gay colored rags, which are piled high on the pavement. They look very picturesque as they work with their red kerchiefs tied over their heads."

Carpet rags may be of new cloth—mill ends bought up from New England or sometimes from European factories. They are of a variety of fabrics both cotton and woollen,—muslin, percale, gingham, duck, oilcloth, cretonne, and ticking, or remnants of wool from the clothing factories. Many of the white rags are dyed in brilliant tints of blue, pink, green, yellow, orange, or in the more sober colors of gray, brown or black before delivery to the home worker.

Or carpet rags may be of old material. The automobile tire factories supply a large quantity of "rubber rags." These factories melt old tires, and rag carpet manufacturers buy the muslin that

binds them. The truck drivers distribute these old rags blackened and greasy and saturated with the odor of rubber, to hundreds of private homes, to be torn in narrower strips, sewed in a single length, and rolled into balls. Junk dealers supply a quantity of old rags. Their agents buy them far and near, from homes and factories, and bring them to warehouses where ragpickers sort them and pack them in bales by the use of a power machine. The dealer sells the short ends of cloth to the paper mills, the long strips to rag carpet mills. Again agents may work directly for the rag rug manufacturers in the purchase of old rags.

The rag sewer in her home suffers from certain discomforts that arise from the nature of the process and of the raw material. She must endure the dust from filthy rags. Even new rags are not clean, since factory owners ship them in bales from distant cities. The home worker that prepares rags dyed in the factory fares even worse than the one that handles filthy rags, since the cheap dyestuff rubs off the cloth and covers the worker and all the furniture in the house. The strain on the neck and the shoulders of the worker from the constant tearing of cloth is a discomfort and may be a physical hazard.

Manufacturers use various methods to distribute rags to the homes. From Carlisle auto trucks and teams run ten and thirteen miles out into the country, and women on the farms that desire work hail the driver as he passes. He leaves one or more gunny sacks of rags to be prepared and calls at the farmhouse again in a week. One mill in Carlisle also sends carpet rags by trainload to a nearby village. The women from the neighboring farms meet the contractor at the depot with their own teams. In Norristown, on the contrary, women and children go themselves to the mill, and carry bundles, twenty-five pounds in weight, on their backs or in express carts or in strange vehicles often of their own manufacture. In one country town a mill owner delivers rags to home workers in a wheelbarrow. Each manufacturer in fact institutes his own method of transportation.

The contract system is often used as an aid in the distribution of carpet rags. We heard of one firm that employed three agents, and of another that employed a contractor to whom a commission of one-half cent a pound was paid for rags that had been prepared. A driver of a truck or a store-keeper is often a contractor. The driver delivers the rags at will to his own patrons and pays them individually when he collects the product. The store-keeper buys balls of rags furnished and prepared by home workers. Sometimes the women of small villages raise church funds by the sale of these balls of rags.

Rag sewers are among the lowest paid of all home workers. Some employers have a sliding scale, modified in accordance with the kind of rags given out. Since factory owners estimate remuneration by the pound, the home worker prefers the rags that are heavy

in weight. She also prefers the strips that have length since they require less sewing in the making of a ball. The rate of pay varies from $\frac{1}{2}$ cent to 5 cents a pound for preparing rags, and 7 cents a pound for both preparing the rags and furnishing them from the household store. The rate of earnings (without helpers) ranges from one cent to 9 cents an hour, with a median rate of 4 cents.

An Italian home worker declares: "It takes me a day of ten hours of work to cut a bag of rags of 25 pounds, and a day of the same length to sew them, with an extra hour on the third day to wind them. I get $4\frac{1}{2}$ cents a pound for rags prepared, but there is at least a waste of two pounds in a bag—the small scraps which are torn off to straighten a strip of cloth. There is no pay for the waste. A bag of rags makes three balls and brings in the neighborhood of one dollar." An American country woman reports: "With my three children (13, 10 and 7 years of age) I can make one dollar in a ten-hour work day. I often work until midnight."

The rag sewer is usually an unskilled casual worker, who is not under compulsion to "speed up" in order to offset seasonal demands. She has learned the simple processes from a neighbor or at the factory. With a few weeks experience she can do quite as well as the old grandmother that ekes out a livelihood after thirty years of service under one employer.

AMERICAN FLAGS.

The declaration of war upon Germany gave rise to an enormous demand for American flags, desired for patriotic demonstrations. Manufacturers themselves, made house to house canvasses in small villages and sought out all available helpers. They sent home work by delivery wagons to those who did not live within walking distance of the factory. High school girls earned pin money after school, and even the village school master of one small town called at the flag factory each evening on his way from school, and carried a bundle of flags home under his arm. Shophands worked at home after the labor in the factory was over. Men of the households trimmed stars, ironed seams, cut flags apart, and wrapped them.

Various processes in the manufacture of American flags are entrusted to women at home, but the trimming of the stars is almost exclusively their work. Inside factory workers sew square pieces of white muslin together on opposite sides of the flag, outlining a star of machine stitching. The home worker cuts off the excess of muslin around the star. A standardized rate of pay for this process does not prevail, but each factory owner adjusts his wage in accordance with the size of the flags. Rates of pay vary from $2\frac{1}{2}$ to 50 cents for trimming a field of stars,—48 double stars on each flag.

The fastening of flags and pennants on canes is also a usual home process. Home workers tie pennants to fancy canes for one cent a dozen. They fasten flags of half a yard and one yard in length to staves with black tacks for one cent and $1\frac{1}{4}$ cents a dozen. They fasten flags of one quarter of a yard and one yard in length to varnished staves with three brass tacks for $1\frac{1}{2}$ and $1\frac{3}{4}$ cents a dozen. The rate of pay is higher for the latter variety of flags, because they are more difficult to tack.

Flags are wrapped in bundles of one dozen at a rate of $2\frac{1}{2}$ cents a gross for flags under one yard in length, and 4 cents for flags one yard and over in length. Also woven flags are cut from a bolt for 6 and 9 cents a hundred running yards. Again flags are machine stitched at four mills a yard. This process consists of the joining of the stripes and the fastening of the star field.

In spite of the great increase of production in the manufacture of American flags due to war demands, earnings of home workers are scarcely above the average. Hourly rates range from 5 to 20 cents with a median rate of 10 cents.

SILK GOODS

Silk picking is an occupation found frequently among home workers. They pick bolts of taffeta, satin, messaline, crepe de chine, lining silk, and silk left unfinished to be dyed at some distant factory. They use a frame for picking silk, which holds two rollers. They unwind the silk from one roller to another and in the process carefully examine it for all loose threads broken in the loom and for knots or other imperfections. With great precaution so as not to nip a hole in the silk they cut off loose threads with a pair of tweezers which must be kept sharpened in order that they may "pick clean". They mark other imperfections in the silk with a piece of chalk. They may pick one side or both sides of the silk. Inside factory workers re-examine the bolts of silk picked at home.

The process of silk picking is a tedious and trying occupation. Workers must have good light, otherwise they will not be able to see the fine short threads left loose. Black silk is so hard on the eyes that many workers cannot pick it. They often complain of headache and sore eyes, and fatigue caused by the many hours of standing. The thumb also gets very sore with the continual use of the tweezers.

Silk pickers are often in the employment of mill owners established in isolated country districts. The factory has annexes in the houses of the vicinity. A factory owner in a small village has adopted a signal system. He has three home workers who live near the mill, to each of whom he delivers one bolt of silk at a time. When the home worker has finished her assignment, she hangs a white cloth, in the window.

The mill owner sees the signal, delivers a new bolt of silk, and carries the finished bolt back to the factory. Home workers that live at a distance from the silk mills, are less fortunate, since they must usually carry home under their arms from the mill bolts of silk in widths of a yard or less and in lengths of 60 or 75 and even 100 yards.

Although silk pickers are always women skilled in their trade they belong to a group of country workers whose wages are low. A bolt of silk usually takes four or five hours to pick, but it may take all day, and brings from 15 to 70 cents a bolt. Sometimes there is a sliding wage scale adjusted in accordance with the kind of silk and usually the rate of pay increases if both sides of the silk are picked. Home workers report hourly earnings from $3\frac{3}{4}$ to 20 cents with a median rate of 10 cents. These skilled pickers receive a compensation only a little above the average for all home workers. Silk pickers provide their own tweezers which cost from 50 to 75 cents a pair, for the sharpening of which factory owners usually charge 15 cents. While a factory owner occasionally provides a frame the picker more often buys one at a cost from \$2.65 to \$3.25.

Mill owners complain that a system of home work is undesirable, that home workers are often careless and get silk spotted, but they say that inside workers find the process "too tedious" and will not do it. A new machine for picking is doing away with hand pickers. Some bolts of silk, however, require both machine and hand picking.

Factory owners that require hand pickers take means to "speed up" workers at home, and in order to get them often resort to newspaper advertisements for help "wanted." Because of this shortage of labor, home workers can always have steady work throughout the year unless a lack of sufficient workers in the factory limits production.

RIBBON

A few home workers pick ribbons, an assignment of a box at a time. These women have no idea how many pieces or yards there are in a box. They accept whatever the factory owner offers them without any calculation as to the amount of output, or any clear idea of their rate of earning. They report that an assignment consists of the ribbon that comes off the loom at one cutting,—12 or 52 pieces of 20 yards in length. The rate of pay varies from 30 cents to one dollar a box.

WOOLEN CLOTH

Manufacturers of woollen cloth occasionally employ women at home as speckers, burlers, and menders. Speckers pick loose threads from cloth, burlers remove imperfections, menders darn holes in the goods. One firm in a country village, established in 1865, still preserves

this antiquated method of delivering by wagon, bolts of cloth, 50 and 60 yards in length and two yards in width. The processes are very tedious, requiring close attention. The women work steadily usually doing their housework at night in order to reserve the day light for their industrial work. They can finish one or two bolts of cloth a day, and earn 10 cents an hour, while the factory workers earn 15 and 20 cents for the same process.

MACHINE LACE

The separating of widths of lace, after they have come from the loom of the factory occupies some home workers. They catch a thread and pull it out, the length of the strip of lace. One woman by pulling six threads at a time separates widths of lace of one to three inches from a bolt, 75 yards in length and 54 inches in width. She receives 5 cents for each 144 yards of lace that she separates and winds on a spool, a full spool containing four times that amount. The strip, seventy-five yards in length, yields her earnings of about 85 cents and requires from five to ten hours to separate. Her hourly earnings vary from $8\frac{1}{2}$ to 17 cents. Other manufacturers offer smaller rates of pay—3 and 4 cents for 144 yards of lace. The process lends itself well to group work. One family of six, by irregular work, turns out from 10 to 50 spools a week. The father, a ticket agent, and the older daughter, a bookkeeper, work at night. The younger daughters, triplets, fifteen years of age, occasionally work as long as fifteen hours a day. The contract system exists, for one manufacturer reports: "Two employees distribute bolts of lace from their homes."

MACHINE EMBROIDERED GOODS

Factory owners in Philadelphia, Scranton, and Lebanon engage large numbers of home workers in cutting out machine-made embroidery. One factory owner of Scranton reports 110 home workers. But a machine, recently invented, may in the future supersede the hand cutting of embroidery. The pay is 8 and 14 cents for cutting out scallops in strips (20 yards in length) of embroidered muslin and flannel and hourly earnings are from 8 to 24 cents. The contract system exists here also.

HAND EMBROIDERED GOODS

Embroidering symbols and emblems for societies, and designing, perforating, and embroidering doilies, napkins, towels and other household linen, are favorite occupations of women at home that wish to make pin money. Often they use a stationary hoop to hold the

cloth while embroidering. Skilled lace makers—Sicilians or other foreigners, frequently embroider household linen at home, for dry goods houses, at an hourly rate of pay of 10 cents. German women do metallic designing upon Shriner's caps, emblems, regalia and banners. This process requires unusual skill, and nets 40 cents for one and one half hours' work. The women that embroider fancy goods form a high class of home workers, but their compensation varies greatly. Unusual processes pay well. Processes acquired in the home (such as the embroidering of household linen), in which many women excel, pay poorly.

SHEETS AND PILLOW CASES

One dry goods store gives out sheets and pillow cases to be hemmed by machine. The work is very irregular as it is dependent upon the orders of customers. The merchant pays 75 cents for hemming a dozen sheets or pillow cases, the home worker providing her own thread. Hourly earnings of women (without helpers) vary from 5 to 10 cents. The process is a wearisome and monotonous task, since, except for the creasing down of the hems, it requires the constant treading of a sewing machine.

CHAPTER V

THE MANUFACTURE OF TOBACCO

THE EXTENT OF THE INDUSTRY.—Manufacture of tobacco has evolved less completely into a factory system than other industries, because the equipment is cheap and the processes are chiefly those of the hand. A stogie maker of Pittsburgh declares that one may establish a factory with a ten cent knife and ten dollars worth of tobacco on credit. Furthermore, in the manufacture of cigars under a factory system, the first process—the stripping of tobacco leaves—persists in the home.

Factory owners have established their industries both in the eastern and in the western parts of the state. The Industrial Directory of Pennsylvania of 1916 enumerates 1104 firms engaged in the manufacture of tobacco.¹ The largest number of establishments are in southeastern Pennsylvania—in York County, in which there are more than two hundred, and in Philadelphia, Lancaster and Berks Counties, in which there are more than one hundred. In Allegheny County, in western Pennsylvania, the directory enumerates 66 firms, 57 of which are in Pittsburgh. The Industrial Directory does not however specify the innumerable home workshops, many of which exist in western Pennsylvania. The Internal Revenue Officer in Pittsburgh issues licenses in Allegheny County and the twenty-three surrounding counties in western Pennsylvania. In December, 1916, it had a record of 344 licenses of tobacco manufacturers, 170 of which were in Pittsburgh. Of all these factories, it is probable that three-fourths are one-room home factories or small workshops.

Our schedules, as is indicated in Table V, are representative of the industry throughout the state. One could scarcely enumerate a more diverse list of localities, large cities and small villages, engaged in the same industry. By way of contrast is Schwenksville, whose beauty Governor Pennypacker said that he hoped a smoke stack would never mar, and the isolated settlement called Rock Run, a mile above Coatesville, where a few hundred Negroes, Austrians, Poles, Russians and Americans have settled.

Having failed in an attempt to canvass the cigar industry of Pennsylvania by the use of the manufacturer's schedule we are not prepared to give even an approximation of the number of home workers engaged in this industry in Pennsylvania. By actual visits, and by a canvass of a small number of cheroot and stogie industries listed in the Industrial Directory, (as shown in Table II) we obtained the names of only 346 home workers. An accurate estimate of the number of home workers engaged in the tobacco industry in Pennsylvania could be made only by means of a canvass of the list of firms as enumerated

¹See page 572

by the internal revenue collector, who has the complete number including the many small workshops. Aside from the unique system of independent home production in the stogie industry, factory owners may employ anywhere from one to eighty outside strippers. Establishments vary in their industrial organization, furnishing examples of a handicraft and of a variety of mixed forms of organization, up to a complete industrialization under a factory system. The use of a system of home work appears to be prevalent among factory owners, to judge from my observation during chance visits to manufacturers, especially those in the country.

THE PROCESS OF CIGAR OR STOGIE MANUFACTURE.—

Home work in the tobacco industry is usually that process known as “stemming” or “stripping”—removing the mid-rib of the tobacco leaf, after it has been thoroughly saturated with moisture or “sweated.” The worker opens up the leaf, and with a knife or with the fingers removes the mid-vein of the leaf. The home worker strips “fillers” usually, “binders” frequently, “wrappers” rarely. She prefers to strip “wrappers” and “binders,” because she receives a higher rate of pay, but these leaves require careful handling and more skill in preparation. She must take great care that she does not tear them. If they are too small to be “stripped” without injury, she may only partly remove the mid-rib.

After stripping, the worker lays out the leaves smoothly with wet hands on a wooden block, counts them leaf by leaf, or weighs them in bundles of six ounces or thereabouts. This process is called “booking.” The worker also sorts the “wrappers” according to shades of color. After booking the worker carefully packs binders and wrappers in layers in a box and places paper between each layer for protection in returning them to the factory. She uses no care in the arrangement of the leaves of “filler tobacco,” since the manufacturer has them weighed in bulk and crumpled for use. After stripping she dumps them in a sack or a box to be returned to the factory.

Workers in home workshops make the “stogie,” or “tobie,” and occasionally the cigar. They may shape the stogie or the cigar by hand, but generally they use a mold, which consists of two wooden rectangular blocks, a foot and one half in length, each containing a series of transverse grooves. Each groove in the upper mold fits perfectly over a groove in the lower mold, and presses and holds into form, the “filler” placed there, with or without a “binder.” This extra tobacco leaf folded about the bunch distinguishes a cigar from a stogie, and adds value to the cigar. Workers sometimes put the block or mold filled with tobacco in an ordinary hand lever press, and thereby accelerate the process of shaping the stogie. After rolling the “filler” (with or without a binder,) in a wrapper, they clip off the

"tuck end",—the end to be lighted,—with a knife or a cutter, and smooth and close—the head end with paste, with a curl, or with the moisture of the tongue. They then pack the finished stogies or cigars in cartons, tin cans or wooden boxes, to which they have affixed labels, and seal them with an internal revenue stamp.

The manufacturer may not sell tobacco to the consumer that is not put up in packages bearing a government stamp. He must submit to the federal government a detailed monthly and annual report of the quantity of leaf tobacco which he buys and of the goods that he manufactures; and this report must tally with the amount of government stamps which he purchases. He also pays for the privilege of manufacture, a tax semi-annually varying from \$1.50 to \$6 in accordance with his output. Federal officials diligently inspect stogie work shops and impose heavy fines for the breaking of regulations. These regulations pertain only to the condition of output in its relation to taxation, and in no wise control the conditions of sanitation.

THE STOGIE WORKSHOP OF PITTSBURGH,—“The Hill”, the old, and now the congested foreign section of Pittsburgh, which towers above the main business thoroughfares of the city, is the center of many of the surviving workshops in the stogie industry. Here factories have developed, most of which have moved to the outskirts of the city; but a few remain on “the Hill” by the side of other establishments in varying degrees of evolution.

We visited 18 workshops on “the Hill.” They flourish in two sections. The Italian stogie-makers live near the great commercial center low on “the Hill.” Their workshops are few and widespread. The Jews live high on “the Hill.” Their workshops are close together on a few streets,—Eriu, Webster, Wylie, Devilliers, Rowley, and Bedford. Signs of the tobacco industry are everywhere apparent,—stogie and cigar box factories, home workshops, leaf tobacco establishments. Even where signs do not appear to the passer-by the industry flourishes. This fact we discovered when we directed our inquiries at a home in the neighborhood, which happened to be that of an agent, and we found the hallways and front room piled high to the ceiling with rows of cigar boxes.

The investigator usually has no difficulty in finding a home workshop, for, in accordance with the Internal Revenue laws, each one bears somewhere a sign that has painted upon it, the name of the owner and the number of his factory. The sign may appear over the front door, on the side of the house, or over a passageway that leads to the rear of a building. One gains access to these workshops in a variety of ways. One may cross the family living room and climb a dark stairway in the middle of the house to a front room of the second floor, or still further to an attic room at the top of the house.

One may enter a cellar by means of an outside doorway. One may follow a passageway at the side of the house which leads to a shed at the back of the house. But to the passerby, the existence of a shop is at once apparent.

These home workshops present many stages of development. All the workshops that we visited provide but one room for the workers. In a few of them there is an adjoining room, where the owner strews tobacco on the floor to dry. In the way of equipment, a stogie maker requires a table, a cutting board, a knife, five or ten pounds of tobacco, and a pot of paste (used instead of saliva), or a curl of the tobacco leaf,) with which to close the head end of the stogie. The extension of this rude equipment takes many forms. It usually begins with the lengthening of the work table, across the room, under the windows—if there happen to be any of them—thus providing places for new workers. The tools of manufacture increase. The “buncher” may use a mold, the “roller,” a patent cutter, the “stripper,” a booking block, the “buncher” and the “packer,” a press, the packer, tin cans and wooden boxes as well as cartons. Meanwhile the workroom develops from a corner of a living room into a well built shed at the rear of the house.

Workers suffer many discomforts. Scraps, cuttings and stems cover the floor. Usually, tobacco is exposed in racks overhead, and the dust from the brittle leaves fills the whole room. All the windows are tightly closed, not only as a protection from the cold of the winter but because variations in humidity spoil the tobacco. The rollers require good light, and in dark basements and attics they work under flaring gas jets, their eyes unprotected from the glare. The almost universal use of small gas stoves makes the ventilation especially inadequate. In a shed at the rear of one house, we discovered a stogie maker who had put his stool over his gas stove in order to get full benefit of the heat. Added to the discomfort from lack of ventilation and from unhygienic lighting, is that which inevitably arises in the process of production but is doubtless less serious to the worker than it seems to the observer. Tobacco, always kept moist, stains the fingers and the clothes of the worker.

Home workers in stogie shops usually compose a family group. The one Italian shop which we visited employs one worker. In other shops we found as many as nine workers. In the Jewish workshop the stogie maker is assisted by his wife and children (of all ages) or by outsiders. We discovered only one shop owned by a woman—the Italian just mentioned; but the record of the internal revenue taxpayers of 24 counties contains the names of 14 women. However, the father of the family usually owns and runs the stogie workshop. Members of the family give him assistance, but in con-

trast with what one finds in some home industries, he bears the responsibility of family support.

Stogie makers are often hand workers,—the survivors of an earlier industrial system. They are skilled artisans, but they turn out but half the output of the mold workers. The use of a mold institutes a more minute division of labor. A child, an old man, or a woman “strips”; a woman “bunches”; a man or woman “rolls.”

A certain Italian workshop will serve as an example of a stage of early industrial development:

In four rooms on the second floor of an old wooden dwelling lives a candy maker, his wife, and three children. Off the kitchen is a tiny room, about five feet by eight, which the wife, who learned her trade in Florence whence she came as an immigrant fourteen years ago, has set aside as a workshop. Our interpreter, a woman who lived downstairs, assured us that the children gave no assistance in manufacture, but regularly attended the parochial school in the neighborhood. The mother has strung a small line across the workshop, and also uses the room as a place for drying clothes. It contains a small table under the one window, upon which is a knife, a glue pot, a can of tobacco leaves, and rows of cylindrical cardboard boxes. A heap of tobacco leaves lie on the floor.

The worker sits at her table, strips her tobacco leaves, rolls them in bunches, and pastes on a wrapper. During the cold of the winter she was accustomed to take her work into the kitchen, but one day the internal revenue inspector found her there. “You have bonded one room, and you must work there”, he told her. She then bought a new gas stove for her workroom and under a flaring gas jet she works there night and day, as she feels inclined, sometimes two hours at a time, sometimes eleven.

When the worker has finished a few hundred stogies, she packs them, one hundred in a box, and pastes a revenue stamp over each cover. She then peddles them herself for cash at the nearby cigar stores, or her husband sells them in the evening, or the baker exchanges them for huge loaves of bread which he delivers at the home daily. The worker is busy throughout the year and never has any difficulty in the disposal of her output.

This stogie maker rolls one hundred stogies in an hour at a profit of 9 cents a hundred, and has filled as many as 56 boxes in a week. She buys a case of tobacco from the leaf dealer around the corner for \$11, and two hundred cartons at the box factory nearby for \$4. Her husband purchases revenue stamps at the federal office in the city, and pays at the rate of 30 cents for each hundred stogies manufactured. He also pays semi-annually a tax of \$1.50 for the privilege of manufacture.

The Jewish owner of a home workshop with an insignificant output of stogies thrives in spite of his unpopularity with competitors of other nationalities. “The Jews have butchered the trade. They have set their children at work,” declares a German, who has a small workshop in the back room of a cigar and novelty store. “We would starve to death, if we now depended upon our trade for a living.” The Jews are of Russian, Austrian or Roumanian origin. They have received training either in the home workshop of a compatriot or in a small stogie factory in the neighborhood.

The owner of a small shop may carry all the leaf tobacco that he requires for an output of three hundred stogies a week, under his arm from the leaf dealer. Others buy part of a case, a whole case, or several cases of tobacco, (a full case weighing two or three hundred pounds). A manufacturer pays 5 to 30 cents a pound for "filler" tobacco, and 25 to 60 cents a pound for "wrapper" tobacco. He pays \$2 to \$4 for a hundred cardboard boxes, and \$2.25 to \$6.75 for a hundred wooden boxes. He may haul these supplies at his own expense or a dealer may deliver them free of charge. With a good reputation, a manufacturer may always obtain credit from either the leaf dealer or the box maker.

A few illustrations will aid in a clearer conception of these Jewish home workshops.

SHOP A: The shop is in a shed in the rear of the house, where husband and wife work together. The owner is a Russian Jew, a hand stogie maker, who occasionally varies his occupation by peddling brooms. His daughter, a young woman, makes mold stogies at a home workshop across the road.

SHOP B: The owner of the shop,—a shed in the rear of the house, is a Roumanian Jew, who peddles his wares from store to store. Husband and wife worked side by side in a cigar factory before marriage. They are equally skilled in the production of mold stogies.

SHOP C: An Austrian family, occupies an old store converted into a dwelling. The living room, the store proper, is in much confusion, with cans of mixed paints, brushes, lead pipes, and tools of a great variety, for the man of the house is a painter and a plumber as well as a stogie maker. On a work-bench in one corner, he rolls stogies by hand. The wife, with her two daughters, (9 and 5 years of age,) strips tobacco. A baby plays in a heap of tobacco leaves. The mother explains, "Rachael, my oldest child, likes to play, not to work."

SHOP D: The owner of the workshop is a Russian Jew, who lives on the second floor of a three-storied wooden house. The attic with one window and a sloping roof is used as a shop. The father, blinded in one eye, and a grown son with a bandage on his head because of a boil, wrap stogies. The mother prepares bunches for molds. A son, (13 years of age) strips tobacco, and a feeble-minded boy from the neighborhood smooths moist tobacco leaves on a booking block. Dry tobacco leaves lie in racks made of slats, fastened against the ceiling. Brittle particles sift downward and the air is laden with dust. Heaps of tobacco leaves and stems lie on the floor and a dog is stretched out upon them. The one window is shut tight. A gas stove is burning. Dazzling gas lights, unshaded, illuminate the workshop. The owner buys the stock of his neighbors, and with his own wares peddles them from one small cigar store to another. He rejoices over good business. "It has not been so good for fifteen years," he exclaims. "Men earn more, profits are higher in spite of the high cost of tobacco leaves."

SHOP E: The father, a Roumanian Jew, with his long beard and his skull cap, wraps stogies. A daughter, a young woman, helps him. "I know typewriting," she declares, "but I make more money at wrapping." The mother prepares fillers. A young girl from the neighborhood, and a son, (11 years of age) strip. In an adjoining attic room, tobacco leaves are spread on the floor, while the family wash hangs on a clothesline above them.

SHOP F. A family workshop is that of a Russian Jew. One enters a dark cellar from an outside door. Father and son, partners in business, wrap stogies, while two daughters prepare fillers, and a son, mentally defective, strips. They turn over their whole output to wholesale dealers to market. The family appear

happy and prosperous in spite of their mean workshop, for they have a comfortable home in an apartment above.

SHOP G: The largest of these Jewish shops has nine workers. It has gradually expanded and taken in outsiders. The father superintends the workers and cares for the shipments. A married son, who lives in the neighborhood, makes hand stogies. Two sons, (14 and 16 years of age,) both in school, help at odd times with the stripping. An old man and two young men, both outsiders, prepare fillers and roll stogies. A boy, (16 years of age) from the neighborhood, strips and his sister, (15 years of age) helps after school and on Saturdays.

SHOP H: In a basement, the owner makes stogies, a few hundred at a time, which, with the output of his neighbors, he sells at stores and factories; though a part he turns over to a son, who, with a supply of balloons, follows the crowds of picnics and games. "On the fourth of July," the father exclaims with much pride, "my son took in \$20."

SHOP I: In a shed a Russian employs two outside women. The shop has a skylight and a coal stove—a conspicuous provision instead of the usual gas lights and the gas stove. When questioned in regard to his wife's assistance in production, the stogie maker exclaimed: "Home is the wife's place."

SHOP J: A Russian Jew, who owns a confectionery and cigar store, rolls stogies a few hours a day in a shed at the rear of his home, where he hires two men regularly. He keeps a horse and wagon to haul his supplies and his products.

SHOP K: A German shopkeeper replenishes the small stock of cigars in his showcase, to which he has added a few cheap trinkets of jewelry. He buys four or five dollars worth of tobacco at a time, carries it home from the leaf dealer's under his arm, and rolls it into cigars, in his small workshop, at the rear of his store.

SHOP L: A Roumanian Jew,—a salesman in a cigar store, sells his small output of stogies to agents, who come to the store. The salesman rarely visits the workshop; but he supplies all the raw materials and the equipment and hires a man at home, who, in turn, hires an outside girl.

These small workshops are able to compete with the factory, because machine made products are to this day less in favor with the market than hand made goods. Furthermore in the sale of his output the owner of a stogie factory frequently eliminates the middleman's profits.

Some of the independent manufacturers in their home workshops make a fair living with the cooperation of a grown family. A family group of five adults reports an income of three thousand dollars a year. A second family group of six people, the youngest 13 years of age, reports an income of two thousand dollars a year. In contrast, one hand stogie maker alleges that he makes only one fourth of a cent profit on each stogie, and that by working day and night he can turn out but 3500 stogies a week. But these small producers take much satisfaction in their independence, and sometimes they progress from owners of home workshops to owners of well equipped factories.

The owners of stogie factories pay low wages to outside workers. With an eight hour day, as a piece worker, a roller earns but \$15 or \$16 a week, a buncher, \$8 or \$9, a stripper, \$5. In the largest of these shops, according to the owner's statement, the output varies from 500 to 70,000 stogies a week.

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STRIPPING OF TOBACCO UNDER THE FACTORY SYSTEM.

—Under an entirely different system of industry are the numerous small cigar factories in Pennsylvania that exploit the cheap labor of women in the country. In testimony taken before the Industrial Commission in 1901, witnesses testified: "Large cigar manufacturers in New York, who have had labor troubles, have, within recent years, turned especially to the towns of Pennsylvania, where they can find cheap labor, and in several cases have established what may be termed schools for the education of local labor in cigar making. Such establishments are located at Lancaster, York, Ephrata, Manheim, Danville and Hamburg, Pennsylvania . . . These country factories employ from 25 to 1000 people . . . Immigrants often go to these country places to take up the manufacture of cigars."¹

The Industrial Directory of Pennsylvania of 1916 lists a manufacturer of tobacco of Wilmington, Delaware, and another of South Norwalk, Connecticut, nine manufacturers of New York City, besides several of Philadelphia, as having branch factories in small towns in Pennsylvania. These branch establishments employ from 64 to 1103 employees each. One New York firm has 15 branch factories in Pennsylvania, seven of which are in Lancaster County. Another New York firm has eleven branch factories in Pennsylvania. Nearly one half of these factories are in country villages of less than 2500 inhabitants.

Factories in all stages of industrialization employ home workers to do stripping. Even the modern establishment equipped with the latest improved machinery, not only for the manufacture of tobacco, but also for the production of subsidiary requirements,—wooden boxes, tin cans, printed and embossed labels, uses this antiquated system of industry. Here as elsewhere the demand for labor, especially cheap labor, seems to be the primary cause, at present, for the employment of outside workers.

The contract system, prevalent in the manufacture of clothing, is but little used by the manufacturers of tobacco. In an exceptional case, one employer has persuaded an old employee, a married woman, to open a shop for stripping tobacco. She has rented a room over a seed store, and furnished it with chairs and stripping buckets. She arranges definite shifts of work for married women, busy part of their time with household duties, and keeps a careful record in weight of each employee's output. The factory owner calls once a day to watch the progress of the work. The contractor receives 4½ cents a pound for stripping tobacco, and pays her workers 4

¹ Report of the Industrial Commission, 1900, 1901, Vol. XV, p. 388.

cents a pound. She declares, with some discouragement, that the women only want pin money, that they make on an average but two dollars a week, and that they are very irregular and not at all dependable.

Some factory owners do stripping for outside factories, besides manufacturing cigars and stogies for themselves. They receive consignments of tobacco leaves to be stripped even from without the state, and for this process they employ home workers.

Stripping of tobacco is an unskilled process, simple enough for a very young child to acquire. In the factory the beginner, or those below the normal in physique or mentality, perform this first process in the production of tobacco. On the other hand in the home more than half of the strippers have had experience in a cigar factory where some of them had risen to the rank of a roller. The others, as mature women, have come into a trade in which they have never had experience. Home workers report from a few months to forty-nine years of stripping. These women have no opportunity to progress in their trade, but remain in the position that they have attained after a few months of experience.

There is a lack of any standardization of rates of pay. Employers pay from one cent to 8 cents a pound for stripping, fillers, binders and wrappers. One man pays $2\frac{1}{2}$ cents a pound for fillers and 4 cents a pound for binders and wrappers. Another sends a box of tobacco of thirty pounds to each stripper, who receives, "stem weight", 25 cents a box for smoking tobacco, 50 cents for filler tobacco, and 75 cents for binder tobacco. One woman reports an additional cent a pound for all choice wrappers of a light shade, which she sorts in booking. Of course strippers prefer the heavy leaves, since manufacturers reckon earnings by the weight of the stripped tobacco, and vary their wage scale with the grade of tobacco. The stems are returned to the factory to be sold as fertilizer.

As in other forms of home work wages are low. Women (without helpers) estimate their hourly earnings from 5 to 29 cents with a median rate of 9 cents. Various accidents in the industry cause some irregularity of employment, but seasonal production, except in the case of manufacturers who make a speciality of Christmas goods, is unusual.

But seasonal production exists among the strippers for warehouses. Lancaster County is the center of the production of filler tobacco, the counties of York, Clinton and Dauphin being much less important. Agents buy tobacco directly from growers. They have the leaves sweated and packed and sometimes stripped before packing, employing both inside and outside workers. These strippers in warehouses have employment only a few months in the year.

Frequent complaints arise on both the part of the employer and of the home worker. The former complains that the smokers and chewers in a home worker's family usually help themselves to the employer's tobacco; and that a home worker often takes a leaf from each consignment, until she acquires a good sized bundle, which she sells for a considerable sum. The workers on the other hand, often declare that their consignments are overweight, for the tobacco is dry when weighed and wet when delivered, and moisture adds several pounds to the weight. They complain also of the poor grade of tobacco. One worker partly overcomes this difficulty according to her report: "I send my son George to the factory. He goes first and looks over the stock. If the tobacco is good, he brings me home 80 pounds, if it is poor, he brings me only 60 pounds."

CIGAR BOXES.

The manufacture of wooden cigar boxes occupies a small number of outside workers. They finish the edge of the box with strips of paper, and paste on the cover and sides the brilliantly printed and embossed labels bearing the name of a brand or an attractive picture. Rates of pay range from \$.50 to \$1.10 a hundred cigar boxes, adjusted according to the amount of trimming with which each box is adorned. Box makers report hourly earnings from $8\frac{1}{2}$ to 45 cents with a median rate of $13\frac{1}{2}$ cents. The employer delivers the boxes in crates with powder to be mixed with water for paste. The worker needs only a piece of cheese cloth to wipe off the surplus paste. One manufacturer claims that the bulk of material to be handled in transportation is so great and communication with the home workers is so difficult that he must reduce the rate of pay ten cents on each hundred boxes below the rate paid to factory workers.

SUMMARY,—The manufacture of tobacco in home workshops has certain unique features. As in other industries the factory has adopted a system of home work (in giving out tobacco leaves to be stripped), but on "the Hill" of Pittsburgh there is an intermingling of several systems of industry, where manufacture takes place in establishments in various stages of development from a crude workshop to a well-equipped factory. In the stogie workshops home workers usually comprise a family group, who gradually take in outsiders as their business develops; but unlike the home strippers under the factory system, the owner of the stogie workshop is an independent producer rarely under the control of a factory owner or of a middleman.

CHAPTER VI.

OTHER INDUSTRIES.

There are numerous other industries in which a system of home work prevails, but which do not employ so many women in their homes as those previously described. Among these are certain new industries. Sometimes the processes appear to be permanent, as in the case of the covering of baseballs, the stringing of tags, or the carding of hooks and eyes. Sometimes they are transitory in character. Fashion decrees that embroidery of beads shall adorn slippers, and that fringe shall trim garments. Hundreds of women will have employment while the fashion is in vogue, and then the employment will cease. There are also old industries, which a system of home work has long dominated, but which require only a small force of home workers, or which have not developed into large industries in Pennsylvania; for example, the manufacture of artificial flowers and the separating of horse hair. Furthermore there are industries in which a decade or two decades ago a system of home work prevailed,—the making of boots and shoes, the binding of books, the manufacture of brushes, but in which the invention of new machinery has made the use of the system impracticable. However, we found many survivals of these trades still lingering in the homes.

BOOTS AND SHOES.

Home workers perform few processes in the manufacture of boots and shoes, and these only in scattered instances. They consist chiefly of making a popular fad in shoe trimmings or an occasional standardized operation in the production of shoes. The custom of placing machines of various kinds in the homes was very prevalent in the last decade, but now manufacturers rarely use this method of production.

In making bows for pumps, workers first stitch the bow by machine, with the exception of the cross piece, which is set by hand. They then sew the bow upon a piece of buckram. One home worker uses a foot-power machine, furnished her by the factory owner, with which she fastens the bow to the buckram by means of four staples. The employer pays her 4 cents for a dozen pairs of bows,—a rate one third that paid for the hand process. Hourly rates of earnings for women (without helpers) range from 25 to 30 cents. The few women whom we discovered making bows for pumps are relatives of country factory owners. This fact may account for the high earnings.

Embroidering designs with beads on the toes of satin slippers is another process in shoe trimming. One worker receives 45 cents for a pair of slippers upon which she embroiders a butterfly of

steel beads on a background of black beads. She can finish a pair of slippers in one or two hours. Rates of pay range, in accordance with the design, from 15 to 60 cents for embroidering a pair of slippers. Hourly earnings of home workers (without helpers) vary from $7\frac{1}{2}$ to 30 cents.

Embroidering designs with beads upon a piece of cloth which is later transferred to a shoe buckle is a third process in shoe trimming. Manufacturers pay from \$0.20 to \$1.80 for a pair of buckles, which sell at a retail store for \$1.50 to \$3 a pair. A worker earns from 10 to 22 cents an hour. She must buy an embroidery frame which costs her one dollar.

As skilled workers in a popular production, bead embroiderers are now in demand. Firms in Philadelphia employ as many as 15 home workers, and some of these women make as high as \$15 a week. But the difficulty of getting the tiny beads from France has been the cause of great irregularity of employment.

Manufacturers of slippers formerly sent fine bead work to Vienna to be done, but the distant transportation entailed so many difficulties and delays, that embroiderers were employed to teach home workers in the shop, and advertisements were put in foreign papers to recruit women with the necessary skill.

The finishing of babies' moccasins occupies a number of home workers. They pleat the moccasins and lace them up the front with ribbon. They may also trim them with fancy hand stitching, or with bows of ribbon. One employer pays 15 cents for fancy hand stitching on a dozen pairs of babies' moccasins. These processes are variable, each manufacturer choosing his own design for production.

There are a few simple operations assigned to home workers in the country, which properly belong in the fitting room of a shoe factory. Women stitch shoe linings by machine or with pen and ink, mark upon them numbers or letters, indicative of size or make. They turn back linings of the uppers of shoes that the rough seams may be inside. They beat the seams with a hammer in order to make them smooth. They paste linings to straps of slippers. They sew buttons to uppers by the use of a flat needle. They sew buttons upon ladies' comfort shoes, and also upon shoes of heavy weight. All these products they pair and bundle in lots of a dozen pairs. Their rates of pay vary from 2 to 7 cents for a dozen pairs of shoes; but rates are not comparable since the processes performed are far from uniform. The hourly earnings are from 3 to 17 cents, with a median rate of 12 cents. The wives of three manufacturers of shoes in one small town of Schuylkill County have steady work at home performing various factory processes.

City home workers occasionally perform these processes, but usually, only in rush seasons. An employer reports: "In our

busy season, we have as many as 15 fitters. Turners in also take home work." For Christmas trade, one home worker sews fur on Juliet slippers at a rate of pay of 90 cents for 125 pairs. Inside factory workers first sew the fur by machine, and the home worker then turns it back and sews it by hand. There are a few exceptional cases in which city workers are fairly regular workers. A forewoman in a shoe factory in Philadelphia takes home work to her mother and sister, both of whom were formerly shoe makers. They have themselves installed a shoe machine in their home and can carry on a number of processes..

Home workers sort leather bought up from the shoe factories in the vicinity by a single factory owner who uses these scraps of leather to make children's shoes and to trim canvas ones. A truck driver delivers from three to ten sacks weighing from 32 to 102 pounds each. Women sort the scraps of leather according to color and shade, there being often more than 30 kinds. They trim them with sharp scissors, according to as many as six different patterns furnished them by the factory owner. They then bundle the scraps and return them to the factory.

The rate of pay and earnings for sorting leather scraps is very low. One home worker expresses a common attitude of mind: "I might as well earn a few pennies as nothing at all." The rates of pay are one cent a pound for trimming the edges of scraps, 1½ cents for sorting them, and 2 and 2½ cents for both trimming and sorting them. Rates of earnings are difficult to ascertain as almost all the work is of the group, with irregular help from children, husbands out of work, or, in the evenings, adult members of the family who work during the day. The hours required in preparation of a sack of leather scraps are by no means uniform, since certain qualities of leather are very heavy and hard to cut and the sizes and shapes of the scraps are never the same. A woman earns from less than 2 to 9 cents an hour and has an expense in providing and keeping in repair several pairs of sharp scissors, which she buys from the firm at 30 cents a pair. The firm sharpens them for a fee of 25 cents for three pairs. Thus the low rates of earnings are further reduced by the exaction of overhead charges in provision of tools.

An old couple is entirely dependent upon this work for support. Employment is so irregular that often they must accept charity. They report: "We have done as much as 200 pounds in a day, and when we have good luck we have earned \$2.50. But for this pay we must work 12 hours in the day, only taking a bite of lunch without stopping our work. Sometimes the leather is so hard to cut, that it takes three days to do one hundred pounds; and often the very day we can do the most, we have no work." The leather is very dirty and this old couple, in order to keep the dust from the rest of the home, have chosen the bathroom as the workroom.

GLOVES OTHER THAN LEATHER.

The pulling of threads in the finishing of silk and cotton gloves employs more home workers than any other process in this industry. They pull the threads of the fancy stitching on the back of the gloves through from the right to the wrong side with a needle, and knot and clip them. The processes are seldom identical, the number of threads to be pulled varying with each make of glove. Manufacturers, without regard to standards, fix their own rates of pay, which vary from $3\frac{1}{2}$ to 10 cents for a dozen pairs of gloves. One employer pays 6 cents for pulling two threads at one end of the stitching on the back of a dozen pairs of gloves, and tying and clipping them. At the other end of the stitching the home worker merely knots and clips the threads, already on the wrong side of the glove. This employer, for the same process, pays 8 cents for four threads, and 10 cents for seven threads. Another pays 8 cents for pulling three small threads and nine heavy threads at both ends of the stitching on the back of a dozen pairs of gloves, and tying and clipping them. Sometimes, the manufacturer requires only the first operations—the pulling of the threads, without knotting and cutting them. The rate of pay is then usually half that of the full process.

Homeworkers sometimes trim the seams inside of gloves, and by the use of a stick turn them to the right side, at 3 cents a dozen pairs. They examine gloves, mark for repairing defective ones with a thread, cut away all loose ends and turn them, at 4 cents a dozen pairs. They stitch gloves, at 11 cents a dozen pairs. They close up the ends of the fingers of gloves with a needle, at 9 cents a dozen pairs. They crochet the ends of mittens, closing them at $12\frac{1}{2}$ cents a dozen pairs.

These processes pay little, although they require some experience. Either a forewoman or “a friend” has taught the women, or they have had experience in a factory. Home workers earn in an hour from $2\frac{1}{4}$ to 16 cents with a median rate of 9 cents. The work is irregular with days and sometimes months of unemployment.

BAGS FOR GLOVES.

One employer gives out canvas bags used for shipping gloves to market. He delivers the material, already cut out, with string and tags, and pays 20 cents for one hundred small and medium sized bags and 30 cents for one hundred large bags,—“the size of a five pound sugar sack”. A worker can make three hundred of the large sacks in a day, and five hundred of the small sacks, but the work is irregular.

UMBRELLAS AND PARASOLS.

The tipping of umbrellas and parasols in the homes of Lancaster and Philadelphia occupies a number of women. They stretch covers over the frames and tack them at the end, the top and the center of the ribs. They work upon twenty-five or fifty umbrellas at a time, performing one process after another upon the lot. Rates of pay vary from 2 to $4\frac{1}{2}$ cents for tipping a cotton umbrella, $5\frac{1}{2}$ cents for tipping a silk umbrella, 5 and 8 cents for tipping either cotton or silk parasols. Manufacturers usually deliver umbrellas in lots of a hundred and call for them the next day.

While the best workers are busy throughout the year, others have long periods of idleness. One of the skilled umbrella workers who has steady employment at home is an unmarried woman who supports herself entirely by her earnings. She is a quick and steady worker and can tip six umbrellas in an hour, for which output she receives 12 cents, but she can not keep up this pace continually. She works throughout the year, 11 hours a day, except a few hot days in summer. She prefers to be at home, for she says, "It gets on my nerves to have any one in the room while I am working." Another worker reports: "I can not depend upon this work for a living. One year I had nothing to do from Christmas until September, for only the best workers get the parasols."

Home work oftens includes the making of umbrella cases and the fastening of straps to covers. Women also make straps for 27 cents a dozen and rings for 20 cents a dozen. But unless a special color is necessary rings are usually machine made. In a factory each umbrella maker provides her own runners or puffs for umbrellas and parasols. She often makes them herself at home in the evening; or she hires an outside worker, sometimes a member of her own family, to make them for her. Furthermore one inside worker in an umbrella factory states that home workers make covers for her for 15 cents a hundred. The hiring of home workers by factory hands is peculiar to the umbrella industry.

HOOKS AND EYES, PATENT FASTENERS,
AND PEARL BUTTONS.

Hundreds of women in Philadelphia, many of whom are Italians, sew hooks and eyes on cards. The process requires no skill, except for speed and neatness. In the preparation of hooks and eyes for the market, the workers first sew the eyes on a card, perforated to aid in the process. They then link the hooks into the eyes and stitch them on the card. The rates of pay are 22, 35, and 60 cents for preparing one hundred cards, the median rate being for cards of two

dozen hooks and eyes with an extra set of two dozen flat eyes. Thus women earn 35 cents for sewing 7200 hooks and eyes on 100 cards. The home worker receives at the factory thread, cards in packages of one hundred each, and a bag containing hooks and eyes. She provides her own needles. Her hourly earnings are from $2\frac{3}{4}$ to 4 cents. Often she has no work for three weeks at a time.

Women receive 55 cents for clasping a dozen patent fasteners on 300 cards,—55 cents for 3600 fasteners. This process requires no sewing. A woman living in Philadelphia says: "My daughter works at the hook and eye factory. Last summer she brought home snap-pers to put on cards. She worked every night until nine or half past nine o'clock and could hardly make 55 cents a week."

A similar process performed by a few home workers, is sewing pearl and novelty buttons on cards, a half a dozen or a dozen buttons **on a card**. Manufactures pay $4\frac{1}{2}$ and 5 cents a gross for this process. The hand polishing of pearl buttons once employed many women in homes, but a special apparatus for this process is now used in the factory.

HAT ORNAMENTS AND DRESS TRIMMINGS

The making of hat ornaments and of dress trimmings is a large home industry in Philadelphia. Two manufacturers each report one hundred outside workers. The Armenians are particularly deft at this work. One manufacturer commends them for extraordinary diligence. "They will work half the night," he declares. The assignments to home workers vary from season to season, so that inside workers must teach home workers in the factory each a new process, before they receive an assignment..

Rates of pay and earnings are low. Wages are reckoned by the piece, dozen, gross, yard, and sometimes by the hour. The following is an enumeration of a few processes and their rates of pay. Home workers assemble cords for army hats with acorns for 70 cents a gross. They wind wooden shapes with tinsel for $6\frac{2}{3}$ cents a dozen. They make small patriotic buttons and emblems for 36 cents a gross. They assemble girdles of cord with tassels at an hourly rate of 8 cents. They make trimmings of various designs and wrap them over wooden frames for \$0.48, \$0.60, \$1.50, and \$2 a dozen. They roll balls of tinsel and fasten them on a bow for 8 cents a dozen. They wind silk laces for middie blouses on pegs, paste a label around them, and put them in small boxes, for 12 cents a gross. Other processes, which arise with popular demand are the combing out of braid and knotting the thread for trimming of fringe, pleating straw for hat braid, making tassels, and cutting out gilt ornaments and assembling them. The hourly earnings of a worker again are very small,—from $4\frac{1}{2}$ to 16 cents, the median rate being 8

cents. Furthermore she is busy but two or three weeks a month and then only during the busy season.

MEN'S, WOMEN'S AND CHILDREN'S HATS.

Reading is the center of the felt hat industry. One man declares: "We make hats from the wool off the lamb's back, to the final trimming with ribbon."

Women at home trim men's soft felt hats of various colors,—pocket hats, with a band of ribbon one quarter of an inch wide, tied in a simple knot, and sew a ticket inside the hat. The rate of pay for finishing these hats is $6\frac{1}{2}$ cents a dozen. They trim boy's hats with a narrow band of ribbon fastened with a felt button or a flat bow at 9 cents a dozen. They trim boy scouts' hats with a ribbon band, a flat bow, and a narrow cord, sew on an army label inside the hat, and fasten a tiny white bow on the sweat band, at 10 cents a dozen. They trim army hats with a ribbon band and a flat bow, and sew a union label inside the hat, at 10 cents a dozen. They trim men's tourist hats with a band, bow and cord, and sew a sweat band, fastened with a tiny white bow inside the hat. (Inside factory hands sew the sweat bands of all other hats by machine). The rate of pay for finishing tourist hats is 18 cents a dozen.

Women's hats are trimmed in homes, but very simply,—a band and a sixteen point bow, a band of two colors and a fancy bow, or a big bow, streamers, and rosebuds. For the trimming, and the tacking of a ticket in the hat, women receive 15, 20, and 25 cents a dozen.

The earnings of hat trimmers, skilled or unskilled, is above the average, but their work is highly seasonal. A woman earns from 9 to $19\frac{1}{2}$ cents an hour with a median rate of 15 cents. One trimmer makes as high as \$2.16 by working eleven or twelve hours. These women have but slight overhead charges, each worker receiving from the factory owner a spool of thread large enough to last for the season. The employer also delivers and collects the hats by wagon each day, in crates containing four, five, and six dozen hats. Some workers have had factory experience, others have learned hat trimming by copying a sample. Still others have been milliners. One worker has had thirty-seven years of experience in the felt hat industry.

One manufacturer has attempted to regularize employment by making men's hats in the autumn and winter, and women's hats in the spring and summer, but manufacturers usually provide for the seasonal expansion of business by employing home workers, and by persuading married women to come into the factory for a few weeks during the year. They allow these married women to come and go as they wish, and give them both inside and outside work.

A wholesale milliner reports: "We discontinued home work as the changeable nature of our business did not warrant our cutting materials in large enough quantities to send out." Another reports: "Girls take home braid to make 'buttons',—the beginning of the hat." Wholesale milliners sometimes advertise in the newspapers for home workers, who receive hat frames to cover with velvet. Occasionally a firm employs an outside frame maker or a presser. Probably of more frequent occurrence than the employment of women in the home, is the utilization of the labor of shop hands for millinery processes in their homes at night during the rush season.

ARTIFICIAL FLOWERS FOR MILLINERY.

The manufacture of artificial flowers for millinery, well-developed in New York City, is a small home industry in Philadelphia. One home worker winds short pieces of a thin green wire on a nail to form curls, at a rate of pay of 25 cents a gross. Inside factory workers assemble these curls with other sprays in a cherry wreath. Another woman binds the seed or center of the flower to a wire stem with a strip of green tissue paper, at a rate of pay of 4 cents a gross. A third home worker manufactures the whole flower, by continuing this process. The petals of the flower of silk, muslin, or velvet, received in flat piles, she goffers on a rubber pad,—that is she shapes them, cup-like by the use of a small metal tool. She inserts the stem with the seed in the hole in the middle of each petal, slips the petals out to the end of the stem, pastes them into place and runs the stem into an outer covering. She completes the spray by binding foliage to the flower with wire. She receives 75 cents for a gross of flowers. Those who make artificial flowers for millinery are few in number and work less than two months during the year. They have all had factory experience. Manufacturers usually prefer to let shop hands take home work to be done at night, in rush seasons, because of their lack of confidence in casual workers.

ARTIFICIAL FLOWERS FOR DECORATION.

Large numbers of women in Philadelphia work upon Christmas foliage and other artificial floral decorations. They assemble leaves with poinsettia flowers or holly berries, for which process they receive $2\frac{1}{2}$ cents for a gross of sprays. Italians, as well as Germans, apply for this home work, which gives employment for only a few weeks before Christmas.

One manufacturer of artificial flowers makes poinsettia flowers in a city loft. He enlivens his dark garret by stretching lengths of red velvet across his work room on clothes lines. With the help of a young woman he cuts the red petals and makes up the flowers

which later home workers assemble with foliage. Usually however the parts of sprays and flowers come from New York City and abroad.

"Peasants of Germany," according to an employer, "make the foliage in their mountain homes. Each fall they take up enough raw material to last them through the winter. They receive so small a sum for their work that a manufacturer in the United States can import their products, pay a duty of 60 per cent, and still buy it cheaper than the same product of home manufacture." Firms in this country seek skilled immigrants for branching by advertising in German newspapers.

PRODUCTS OF HORSE HAIR.

Separating white from colored horse hairs and tying them in bundles has long been a home industry. The dressed horse hair is sold,—short hair for brushes, long hair for cloth. Before the Civil War, Irish women and their children at home picked apart curled hair while native women wove the horse hair on hand looms. Today the industry is still found in Philadelphia, to a limited extent, one manufacturer paying 8 cents a pound for separating hair.

PRODUCTS OF HUMAN HAIR.

Manufacturers of hair goods in Philadelphia report that home workers weave wigs, transformations, and toupees, because inside workers object to the job as "too tedious and hard on the eyes." They also frequently send out rush work by mail to old employees. The worker must be experienced and can make from \$5 to \$12 for a hair piece which takes from one day and a half to three days to weave.

BRUSHES.

The bristles in the finest quality of hair brushes are wired in houses by hand. Also rubber strips are glued and nailed on file brushes for 40 cents a gross. Earnings may be as high as 40 cents an hour. But the use of machines for most processes in brush making has superseded hand processes, making home industry impracticable.

TOILET PREPARATIONS.

A manufacturer of toilet preparations gives out boxes containing a gross of square cartons of rice powder, which home workers wrap with fancy paper and tie with ribbon, at 35 cents a gross. Powder puffs and bottles of cologne, of toilet water, and of smelling salts, are also wrapped and tied with ribbon in preparation for the market.

¹ Report on Condition of Woman and Child Wage Earners, 1911, Vol. IX. p. 62. See Article New York Daily Tribune, August 26, 1845.

CHAIRS.

A furniture dealer has 12 home workers, both men and women, who cane chairs, usually old chairs. The dealer takes them directly from the customer to the worker's house. One of his employees is a blind man. He can repair two chairs in a day and receive \$2.25 for each. He provides his own caning which costs him \$1.15 a hank,—a quantity sufficient for four or five chairs. As work is very irregular, this blind man fills in the time by making brooms and hammocks, which he sells to the city market.

SPECTACLES AND SPECTACLE CASES.

The cheap spectacles sold at the five and ten cent store are often assembled at homes. A small apparatus holds the frame of the spectacles. The worker adjusts and rivets the eyeglass to the frame. She must take care to place the glasses so that the concave sides set properly and she does not mistake the hole for riveting, since many of the glasses have a hole for a string. The rate of pay is 16 cents for a gross. One worker reports hourly earnings of 12 cents. Manufacturers also give out spectacle cases to be made by home workers.

JEWELRY AND SILVERWARE.

Skilled jewelers often have a work bench in their homes where they make extra earnings at night apart from their wages under a manufacturer. But the number of these home workers is difficult to determine, for unlike other home workers, these skilled workmen are independent producers making their own price. They carry on a subsidiary manufacture unknown to their employers. Frequently they assemble and engrave pieces of jewelry such as Masonic emblems.

Occasionally under a system of genuine home industry, a manufacturer of jewelry gives out small metal novelties to be sewn on watch fobs, paying one cent apiece for the process, or he sends materials to be manufactured into leather boxes for jewelry, and flannel bags for silver.

RAZOR BLADES.

Safety blades of razors are often packed in tin boxes by home workers, who place a small strip of tissue paper between each two blades. Shophands also take home blades to be packed. The occupation is highly seasonal, lasting from July to September at irregular periods. Workers are unskilled, usually being relatives or friends of inside workers.

GAS MANTLES.

A most unusual home industry is found in Pittsburgh, where firms give out gas mantles for drop lights. The worker waxes the thread with a candle, sews one end of a piece of cheese cloth of about two inches and a half in length around an asbestos ring about **an inch and a half in diameter**, and gathers the other end of the cheesecloth. The rate of pay is 40 cents a hundred mantles for the complete process, and 25 cents a hundred mantles, if asbestos rings have been previously attached. A woman earns about 6 cents an hour.

GAS METERS.

Another singular home industry is finishing leather diaphragms for gas meters. The worker closes the opening in the diaphragm, which is six or eight inches in length, sewing it twice by hand with very fine stitches. If the diaphragm cannot pass the test of holding gas, the woman loses her pay. The rate is $1\frac{1}{2}$ cents for a short row of stitching and 2 cents for a long row, yielding hourly earnings from 6 to 19 cents, with a median rate of 12 cents. The factory owner reports that he can buy diaphragms already sewed a little cheaper than he can have them made, but, since he has employed these women, eager for work, for some time he dislikes to dismiss them. He limits each assignment to 150 large gas meters or two hundred small ones in a week.

BOLTS.

A unique home production in the metal industry is that of assembling bolts, and of wrapping them in tissue paper. A manufacturer in Pittsburgh has sixty or seventy workers, who perform these processes. A second manufacturer formerly gave out nuts to be screwed on bolts, ready for packing, but he has discontinued the practice, as he now has the bolts and nuts packed separately. Neighbors of home workers in nearby apartments are opposed to the processes, causing them extreme annoyance because of the constant clatter which arises in the operation.

PAPER TAGS.

The stringing of paper tags employs more people at home than any other process in the paper goods industry. Many shophands carry home tags and pieces of string or wire in suit cases after work, and with the assistance of their families string the tags the same evening. The process is so simple that children as young as five years of age do it. The constant twisting of wire, however, is very hard on the hands. A manufacturer in Philadelphia reports 178 home workers, another in Chester County, 160 home workers. A

resident of one small city writes: "There is a tag factory here. Little boys and girls take home many dozen tags and string them with wire or twine."

The contract system exists, although it is not usual in the tag industry. One employer delivers to an Italian woman, who runs a notion store, tags to be distributed to negroes and Italians in the vicinity, but he limits this contractor's supply, for she only gets tags, in case of extraordinary demand, when an insufficient number of home workers apply at the factory. She receives two cents for each lot of a thousand tags, which she distributes. The home workers to whom she assigns the work receive the regular factory rates of pay.

The rates of pay and earnings for stringing tags are very low. Tags are distributed in lots of a thousand each, and bring from 4 to 20 cents a lot. A manufacturer in Chester County pays 7 cents for a thousand tags, if the worker slips a piece of string through each hole, 9 cents, if in addition she knots the string, 9 cents, if she uses a wire to hold it with a twist, 20 cents, if she slips a double string through each hole and knots it, numbering each tag. He pays a premium of one dollar a week to the woman that prepares the largest number of tags and he gives double pay for rush jobs, and for stringing tags that he could not market if work were poor. A woman earns in an hour from 3 to 7 cents, with a median rate of 5 cents. The work is usually to be had throughout the year.

PAPER BOXES.

Paper boxes are not usually made in homes, since machine operations have taken the place of hand work. Moreover, the material is bulky and awkward to handle in transportation. In isolated cases firms give out small boxes,—rouge boxes, powder boxes, pill boxes, and jewelry boxes,—to be manufactured in whole or in part.

The rates of pay in Philadelphia are from \$0.25 to a \$1.25 a gross for various processes,—pasting paper covering on cardboard, putting in necks of boxes, binding boxes with paper or cloth tape, and 70 cents a gross for making powder and rouge boxes completely with the exception of the cutting of the material and the forming of the rings of cardboard. An employer installed 20 hand power machines in houses for making soap and handkerchief boxes. The manager of the factory visits the homes himself and pays \$2.50 for 1000 boxes.

Owners of box factories outside of Philadelphia also employ women at various processes. One manufacturer makes nests of tiny boxes that fit into one another, the largest of which is two inches and one half square. He claims that the operations upon these tiny boxes are too small to be done by machines. He pays home workers \$2 for each thousand pieces used in production. He also has parti-

tions set up for candy boxes, which process, he says, is "too monotonous for inside workers." He pays 5 cents for fitting one hundred partitions together. Another factory owner pays 8 cents for fitting together one hundred partitions for holding candy Easter eggs, and 8 to 14 cents for fastening one hundred partitions in candy boxes. This man has installed a combination topping and covering machine in the homes of two women. He pays 4 cents for topping and 7 cents or 9 cents for covering 100 boxes.

Workers (without helpers) receive hourly earnings above the average,—from 6 to 18 cents, with a median rate of $12\frac{1}{2}$. The work requires no outlay of expense on the part of the home worker except the Castile soap that she sometimes rubs on her hands and on the block used in the manufacture. The factory owner furnishes glue, muslin, manila tape, and cardboard already creased for bending, as well as the foot power machine.

PAPER GOODS.

A curious assortment of paper products are made in homes. One employer in a small village reports 50 home workers engaged in the manufacture of paper flowers and decorations for Christmas and other holidays. He pays 40 and 52 cents a gross for banners composed of cards, which are assembled with patent fasteners or by means of glue and string. These cards represent bells, witches, owls, pumpkins, American flags, flags of the allied nations, and similar symbols, and spell out phrases such as Merry Christmas, Halloween, and Liberty. He also pays 8 cents for sewing three wire hooks on 144 pieces of cardboard, to be used for mountings. Another manufacturer pays 15 cents for assembling one thousand hangers for passpartout pictures. For performance of this latter process, a worker reports hourly earning of $7\frac{1}{2}$ cents.

BOOKS.

The binding of books has nearly evolved into a complete factory system, but a few traces of home industry still exist. There are two family workshops in Philadelphia,—one in a basement, the other in an attic. In organization they are very similar to the stogie workshops of Pittsburgh. Owners make contracts with outside manufacturers for binding books of many varieties. Other processes occasionally performed in the home are folding leaves of small books and overcasting signatures. Shophands, both men and women, may own a simple apparatus for binding books and take work home. But this night work is bitterly opposed by the bookbinders' union.

NOTE BOOKS, FOLDERS, AND CALENDARS.

Small leather covers for college dictionaries, college song books, and note books such as those used by firms for the purpose of adver-

tisement, experienced workers sometimes entirely prepare at home for their contents. They paste leather on a small piece of cardboard, turn in the edges, line the covers and sometimes set a leather pocket on the inside covers. Furthermore shophands occasionally number the pages of blank books at home. By the use of a numbering machine, they can stamp from six to eight thousand sheets in one evening. During the rush season,— the fall of the year, they also finish calendars, string them and tie cord and ribbon. Moreover they frequently fold advertisements in convenient sizes for mailing.

NOVELTY GOODS.

A high class of worker decorate novelty goods at home. One man pays 5 and 10 cents apiece for painting free hand designs on novelty knockers, door-stops, and book-ends. In twenty-two weeks one woman,—a skilled china painter, made \$344. Menu cards, place cards, Christmas and Easter cards, are also colored and decorated by well-to-do women or art students who do order work for studios.

LAMP SHADES.

“Seventy-five per cent of all lamp shades are home made”, according to the statement of one manufacturer. Women cover wire frames of lamp shades with pieces of silk cut out and stamped with a design in the factory, for 50 cents apiece. The worker cuts out the design, colors the shade, shares it with clasps, and gives it three coats of shellac. Shophands usually teach home workers the process in the factory, before they receive an assignment.

TOYS, ATHLETIC GOODS.

A toy maker in the country pays home workers 5 cents for putting 20 toy cannon balls apiece in one hundred envelopes. He pays 15 cents for fitting one hundred toy cannon balls with a spring, sealing them with a cork, and finishing them with a handle. He pays 10 cents for putting a toy wireless apparatus for a boat in each of one hundred envelopes and sealing them. The apparatus consists of 18 inch strings, knotted and tied on sticks. He pays 5 cents for gluing one piece on each of one hundred wooden boats and 8 cents for gluing two pieces. He has a variety of other toys glued together, such as fastening toy soldiers to wooden blocks. These processes are disagreeable since the glue sticks to the fingers and the clothing of the worker.

A manufacturer of athletic goods in Philadelphia employs one hundred home workers to cover baseballs for 18 and 37 cents a dozen.

The women call at the factory and carry home a few dozen balls at a time in a bag or a basket.

A toy maker in Philadelphia employs 20 women to finish flannel poodle dogs, by sewing on the nose, the ears and tufts of hair. They also set in the eyes.

DOLL'S DRESSES

The manufacture of doll's dresses is a home trade in Pennsylvania, legally prohibited in the tenements of New York as dangerous to the public. An employer in Philadelphia pays home workers 18 cents for making a dozen dresses for dolls. For a first assignment the worker pays a deposit of 50 cents, receiving material for half a dozen dresses. If this lot is satisfactory, she receives material in large quantities.

CANDY EASTER EGGS

According to the same law, which also forbids manufacture of all food, the decorating of candy Easter eggs is another process of home work injurious to the general welfare. A worker gets $3\frac{1}{2}$ cents for decorating with white frosting one dozen chocolate Easter eggs, which retail at 5 cents apiece. The candy maker sends white sugar frosting and chocolate eggs in boxes of two dozen each to the worker, who squeezes the frosting through a tube and makes fancy designs on the chocolate eggs.

MENTHOL COUGH DROPS

Measuring and packing menthol cough drops in small cartons for retail trade are other processes of home industry in food production. The employer sends cough drops to women in cans of 40 pounds each. They use a small measuring cup in order to determine the number of drops which go in each box, and occasionally they must count them as a check. A package which retails at 5 cents, weighs $1\frac{7}{8}$ ounces and contains 18, 19 or 20 cough drops. A worker shapes 40 cartons, lines them with wax paper, fills them, and packs them in a box for $3\frac{3}{4}$ cents. Or she packs one hundred small packages, which retail at one cent apiece, in a box for 4 cents. Family groups usually perform these processes. In one household a blind girl opens up all the boxes and lines them with wax paper.

SUMMARY.—The variety of these processes assigned to home workers, in addition to those industries employing large numbers of home workers, indicates the vast use of this system in the state. These processes, somewhat localized, cover nearly three dozen industries in both the large city and the small village. They include such diverse products as those of food, of metal, of hair, of leather,

of chemicals, of paper, of wood, and of cloth. We received report of more than 3000 home workers in these minor industries scattered throughout Pennsylvania.

APPENDIX I

EARNINGS OF INDIVIDUAL HOME WORKERS

The earnings of individual home workers in various industries, copied from their own records or those of the mill owners show clearly the inadequacy of the wages paid home workers.

CASE A: A mother, formerly an inside worker in a tobacco factory, reports forty hours of home work a week stripping filler tobacco. She earns with the irregular assistance of her two children (12 and 5 years of age) who also care for the transportation of the material to and from the factory, about 14 cents an hour.

EARNINGS OF TOBACCO STRIPPER FOR ONE WEEK

March 19, 1917,	52 lbs., less 14 lbs.,*at 2	cts. a lb.	\$.76
March 20, 1917,	57 lbs., less 14 lbs.,at 2	cts. a lb.	.86
March 21, 1917,	68 lbs., less 18 lbs.,at 2½	cts. a lb.	1.25
March 22, 1917,	64 lbs., less 18 lbs.,at 2½	cts. a lb.	1.15
March 23, 1917,	45 lbs., less 13 lbs.,at 2	cts. a lb.	.64
March 24, 1917,	67 lbs., less 17 lbs.,at 2	cts. a lb.	1.00

Total earnings for one week \$ 5.66

*Stem weight.

CASE B: The mother, who reports thirty hours of work a week, strips at odd times during the day. The father, a cigar maker in the factory, and four children (12, 10, 8 and 7 years of age) strip in the evening. The father taught the mother who has had eleven years of experience. The family strip Pennsylvania tobacco at 2½ cents a pound and Zimmer tobacco, with small light leaves, at 3 cents a pound. The mother with assistance of her family and with occasional help of her three boarders, earns about 14 cents an hour. The children care for the transportation of the tobacco to and from the factory.

EARNINGS OF TOBACCO STRIPPER FOR ONE WEEK

April 17, 1917,	19 lb. of Zimmer tobacco at3	cts. a lb.	\$.57
April 17, 1917,	21 lbs. of Zimmer tobacco at3	cts. a lb.	.63
April 17, 1917,	20 lbs. of Zimmer tobacco at3	cts. a lb.	.60
April 18, 1917,	23 lbs. of Zimmer tobacco at3	cts. a lb.	.69
April 19, 1917,	23 lbs. of Pennsylvania tobacco at	.2½	cts. a lb.	.57½
April 20, 1917,	23 lbs. of Zimmer tobacco at3	cts. a lb.	.69
April 21, 1917,	21 lbs. of Pennsylvania tobacco at	.2½	cts. a lb.	.52½

Total earnings for one week \$ 4.28

CASE C: From January 1, 1916 to April 30, 1917, a tobacco stripper who prepares fillers, binders, and wrappers, worked steadily, but for one week at Christmas time. Her husband a night watchman helped her each morning and cared for the transportation of the tobacco to and from the factory. Her average weekly earnings are \$2.95. She reports 36 hours of work a week. Her hourly earnings with the aid of her husband are 8 cents. This home worker has had no factory experience, but she has stripped tobacco at home for twenty-one years. She receives 2½ cents for stripping one pound of

binders and fillers. She receives 4, 5, 6 and 10 cents for stripping one pound of wrappers, which she also books.

EARNINGS OF TOBACCO STRIPPER FOR ONE YEAR AND FOUR MONTHS
(IDLE ONE WEEK).

January	7, 1916	\$4.27
January	14, 1916	3.25
January	21, 1916	3.56
January	28, 1916	2.52
February	4, 1916	3.45
February	11, 1916	2.85
February	18, 1916	3.32
February	25, 1916	3.03
March	4, 1916	3.79
March	11, 1916	3.71
March	18, 1916	3.72
March	25, 1916	2.51
April	1, 1916	4.25
April	8, 1916	2.52
April	15, 1916	3.67
April	22, 1916	4.24
April	29, 1916	3.41
May	6, 1916	3.36
May	13, 1916	3.21
May	20, 1916	2.71
May	27, 1916	3.77
June	3, 1916	3.33
June	10, 1916	1.43
June	17, 1916	2.96
June	24, 1916	2.00
July	1, 1916	1.24
July	8, 1916	3.20
July	15, 1916	1.72
July	22, 1916	2.64
July	29, 1916	3.23
August	5, 1916	3.19
August	12, 1916	2.63
August	19, 1916	2.66
August	26, 1916	2.52
September	2, 1916	2.55
September	9, 1916	2.75
September	16, 1916	2.70
September	23, 1916	2.45
September	30, 1916	2.41
October	7, 1916	2.87
October	14, 1916	3.15
October	21, 1916	3.56
October	28, 1916	2.50
November	4, 1916	3.00
November	11, 1916	3.34
November	18, 1916	1.80
November	25, 1916	2.10
December	2, 1916	2.00

December 9, 1916	2.88
December 16, 1916	3.39
December 23, 1916	2.08
December 30, 1916	No work

Total yearly earnings, 1916, \$149.40

January 6, 1917	2.05
January 13, 1917	2.00
January 20, 1917	3.63
January 27, 1917	2.21
February 3, 1917	1.69
February 10, 1917	2.75
February 17, 1917	2.00
February 24, 1917	3.84
March 3, 1917	2.16
March 10, 1917	3.16
March 17, 1917	2.68
March 24, 1917	3.94
March 31, 1917	3.25
April 7, 1917	4.12
April 14, 1917	3.88
April 21, 1917,	3.95
April 28, 1917	4.05

Total earnings, 1917, \$51.36

CASE D: A woman, who mends hosiery, works without assistance, and like others in her occupation irregularly, with an average of two or three hours a day. She receives 4 cents for mending a dozen pairs of hose, which allotment she can do in half an hour. She therefore earns about 8 cents an hour.

EARNINGS OF HOSIERY MENDER FOR SEVEN WEEKS.

April 14, 1917, 43 doz. pairs of hose,	\$1.72
April 21, 1917, 30 doz. pairs of hose,	1.20
April 28, 1917, 29 doz. pairs of hose,	1.16
May 5, 1917, 22 doz. pairs of hose,	.88
May 12, 1917, 10 doz. pairs of hose,	.40
May 19, 1917, 10 doz. pairs of hose,	.40
May 26, 1917, 21 doz. pairs of hose,	.84

Total earnings for seven weeks—about 80 hours. \$6.60

CASE E: An American woman living in a small village in Montgomery County makes coats entirely with the exception of sewing buttons, making buttonholes, and cutting out the garment. She has had thirty years of experience. Each coat takes two or three hours to make and she receives 22 cents for a small sized coat and 25 cents for a large sized coat. Her earnings an hour are less than 10 cents. She works except Saturday and Sunday from one or two to twelve hours a day. She does her cleaning and washing on Saturday. A truck from the factory delivers the coats to her.

EARNINGS OF MAKER OF COATS FOR ONE YEAR AND FOUR MONTHS
(IDLE 2½ MONTHS).

January	5, 1916	10 coats at 22 cts. apiece,	\$2.20
January	19, 1916	36 coats at 22 cts. apiece,	7.92
February	2, 1916	18 coats at 22 cts. apiece,	3.96
February	16, 1916	11 coats at 22 cts. apiece,	2.42
March	1, 1916	17 coats at 22 cts. apiece,	3.74
March	15, 1916	6 coats at 22 cts. apiece,	1.52
May	24, 1916	7 coats at 22 cts. apiece,	1.54
June	7, 1916	10 coats at 22 cts. apiece,	2.20
June	21, 1916	20 coats at 22 cts. apiece,	4.40
July	5, 1916	20 coats at 22 cts. apiece,	4.40
July	19, 1916	18 coats at 22 cts. apiece,	3.96
August	16, 1916	12 coats at 22 cts. apiece,	2.64
August	30, 1916	20 coats at 22 cts. apiece,	4.40
September	10, 1916	10 coats at 22 cts. apiece,	2.20
September	27, 1916	10 coats at 22 cts. apiece,	2.20
October	11, 1916	16 coats at 22 cts. apiece,	3.52
October	25, 1916	8 coats at 25 cts. apiece,	2.00
November	8, 1916	20 coats at 22 cts. apiece,	4.40
November	22, 1916	11 coats at 22 cts. apiece,	2.42
December	6, 1916	24 coats at 22 cts. apiece,	5.28
December	30, 1916	20 coats at 22 cts. apiece,	4.40

Total yearly earnings for 324 coats **\$71.52**

January	17, 1917	20 coats at 22 cts. apiece,	\$4.40
January	31, 1917	14 coats at 22 cts. apiece,	3.08
February	14, 1917	20 coats at 22 cts. apiece,	4.40
February	28, 1917	16 coats at 25 cts. apiece,	4.00
March	28, 1917	10 coats at 22 cts. apiece,	2.20
April	11, 1917	18 coats at 22 cts. apiece,	3.96

Total earnings (4 months) for 98 coats **\$22.04**

CASE F: A vest finisher who lives in Montgomery County is an American by birth, and before marriage worked in a clothing factory. She can finish five or six vests in an hour and receives 60 cents for one hundred, or less than one cent apiece. She fells the neck and sews on the buckles at the back. Her daughter (6 years of age) pulls out bastings. Her hourly earnings are from 3 to 4 cents. She has no work during the summer. She cares for the transportation of the vests to and from the factory.

EARNINGS OF MAKER OF VESTS FOR EIGHT WEEKS.

February	27, 1917	200 vests at 60 cts. per 100,	\$1.20
March	6, 1917	200 vests at 60 cts. per 100,	1.20
March	13, 1917	200 vests at 67½ cts. per 100,	1.35
March	20, 1917	150 vests at 60 cts. per 100,90
March	27, 1917	125 vests at 60 cts. per 100,75
April	3, 1917	150 vests at 60 cts. per 100,90

April	10, 1917, 150 vests at 60 cts. per 100,90
April	17, 1917, 200 vests at 60 cts. per 100,	1.20
Total earnings for eight weeks,		\$8.40

CASE G: An English woman, who lives in Montgomery County finishes men's coats,—sets pads in the sleeves, fells the linings, sews on the hangers. She has had experience in a clothing factory and has done home work for seven years. She can finish three light coats in two hours, for which she receives $3\frac{1}{2}$ and $4\frac{1}{2}$ cents a coat. Her hourly earnings are between 5 and 6 cents. Sometimes she finishes large-sized full-lined coats or overcoats at 8 and 10 cents apiece. She works steadily eleven hours a day, six days a week and is often put on rush work. She pays a granddaughter (8 years of age) a few cents to pull out bastings.

EARNINGS OF MAKER OF COATS FOR ONE WEEK ENDING APRIL 25, 1917.

2 coats at $3\frac{1}{2}$ c each,	\$.07
52 coats at $4\frac{1}{2}$ c each,	2.34
4 coats at 8 c each,32
10 overcoats at 10c each	1.00

Total weekly earnings\$3.73

Case H: An Italian finisher of trousers fells linings for \$1.35 and \$1.50 a hundred pairs. She receives the higher rate of pay if she sews a button or a hook and eye on each pair of trousers. She has had experience in a clothing factory and has worked three years at home. She can finish four or five pairs of trousers in an hour, and thus earn 6 or 7 cents. She works ten hours a day, six days in a week when the care of her baby and two other small children do not interrupt her industrial work. Her husband earns \$15 a week, but he is idle half of the time, for he cannot work in the stone quarry on rainy days. Moreover he drinks, which habit still further increases the irregularity of his employment. The home worker hauls bundles of trousers to and from the factory in a little express cart.

EARNINGS OF A MAKER OF TROUSERS FOR TWO WEEKS.

April 3, 1917, 60 trousers at \$1.35 per 100,	\$.81
April 4, 1917, 50 trousers at 1.35 per 100,68
April 5, 1917, 60 trousers at 1.35 per 100,81
April 6, 1917, 30 trousers at 1.35 per 100,41
April 7, 1917, 40 trousers at 1.35 per 100,54
April 9, 1917, 48 trousers at 1.50 per 100,72
April 10, 1917, 32 trousers at 1.50 per 100,48
April 11, 1917, 72 trousers at 1.50 per 100,	1.08
April 12, 1917, 50 trousers at 1.50 per 100,75
April 13, 1917, 50 trousers at 1.50 per 100,75
April 14, 1917, 18 trousers at 1.50 per 100,27
April 16, 1917, 75 trousers at 1.50 per 100,	1.13

Total earnings for two weeks\$8.43

CASE I: A home worker makes men's shirts "out and out" except cutting the cloth and making buttonholes for $88\frac{1}{2}$ cents a dozen. She has worked at home for seven years and can turn out three

shirts in two hours, earning about 10 cents an hour. She makes from four to eight dozen shirts a week on a foot-power machine, and works from 32 to 64 hours a week. She is idle only when the factory is short of raw material and has a limited production. She reports that her husband and two sons work steadily, but she wants "pin money." One son sometimes helps her to fold the shirts. The worker hires a boy to haul the loads to and from the factory.

EARNINGS OF A MAKER OF MEN'S SHIRTS FOR ONE YEAR. (IDLE NINE WEEKS)

April	1, 1916, 6 doz. shirts,.....	\$3.30
April	8, 1916, 6 doz. shirts,.....	4.95
April	15, 1916, 6 doz. shirts,.....	4.95
April	22, 1916, 6 doz. shirts,.....	4.95
April	29, 1916, 4 doz. shirts,.....	3.30
May	6, 1916, 6 doz. shirts,.....	4.95
May	13, 1916, 6 doz. shirts,.....	4.95
May	20, 1916, 6 doz. shirts,.....	4.95
May	27, 1916, 6 doz. shirts,.....	4.95
June	3, 1916, 6½ doz. shirts,.....	5.36
June	10, 1916, 6½ doz. shirts,.....	5.36
June	17, 1916, 4½ doz. shirts,.....	3.71
June	24, 1916, 6 doz. shirts,.....	4.95
July	1, 1916, 4 doz. shirts,.....	3.30
July	8, 1916, 6 doz. shirts,.....	4.95
July	15, 1916, 6 doz. shirts,.....	4.95
July	22, 1916, 6 doz. shirts,.....	4.95
July	29, 1916,.....	
August	5, 1916,.....	
August	12, 1916, 5½ doz. shirts,.....	4.54
August	19, 1916, 6 doz. shirts,.....	4.95
August	26, 1916, 6 doz. shirts,.....	4.95
September	2, 1916,.....	
September	9, 1916,.....	
September	16, 1916, 4 doz. shirts,.....	3.30
September	23, 1916, 4 doz. shirts,.....	3.30
September	30, 1916, 6 doz. shirts,.....	4.95
October	7, 1916, 5¾ doz. shirts,.....	4.74
October	14, 1916, 6 doz. shirts,.....	4.95
October	21, 1916, 6 doz. shirts,.....	4.95
October	28, 1916, 6 doz. shirts,.....	4.95
November	4, 1916, 6 doz. shirts,.....	4.95
November	11, 1916, 6 doz. shirts,.....	4.95
November	18, 1916, 6 doz. shirts,.....	4.95
November	25, 1916, 4 doz. shirts,.....	3.30
December	2, 1916, 6 doz. shirts,.....	4.95
December	9, 1916, 6 doz. shirts,.....	4.95
December	16, 1916, 4 doz. shirts,.....	3.30
December	23, 1916,.....	
December	30, 1916,.....	
January	6, 1917,.....	
January	13, 1917, 4 doz. shirts,.....	3.30
January	20, 1917, 6 doz. shirts,.....	4.95

January	27, 1917,	8 doz. shirts,	6.60
February	3, 1917,	6 doz. shirts,	4.95
February	10, 1917,	8 doz. shirts,	6.60
February	17, 1917,	8 doz. shirts,	6.60
February	24, 1917,	4 doz. shirts,	3.30
March	3, 1917,	4½ doz. shirts,	3.71
March	10, 1917,	4 doz. shirts,	3.30
March	17, 1917,	4 doz. shirts,	3.30
March	24, 1917,	
March	31, 1917,	
Total yearly earnings,			<hr/> \$202.32

CASE J: A home worker makes cuffs for men's shirts, single lined at $1\frac{1}{4}$ cents a double dozen, single lined and pieced at $1\frac{1}{2}$ cents, double lined at $1\frac{3}{4}$ cents and double lined and pieced at 2 cents. She has done home work for three years, and can make 10 double dozen cuffs in a week, working 10 or 20 hours. She is a widow with two grown daughters. The one is an operator in the shirt factory, but she occasionally turns cuffs in the evening. The other is an invalid, who is able at times to stitch on the machine. The worker hires a boy to haul the material to and from the factory. She uses an electric power machine the motor for which cost her \$15. She pays 70 cents a month for electricity.

EARNINGS OF A MAKER OF CUFFS FOR FIVE MONTHS.

December	2, 1916,	\$2.90
December	16, 1916,	3.89
December	30, 1916,	5.41
January	13, 1917,	2.77
January	27, 1917,	5.10
February	10, 1917,	2.12
February	24, 1917,	3.40
March	10, 1917,	8.20
March	24, 1917,	7.96
April	7, 1917,	6.27
April	21, 1917,	7.23
Total earnings for five months		<hr/> \$55.25

CASE K: A taper of underwear receives 3 cents a bundle (two dozen garments) for taping necks and 6 cents for taping necks and arms with cotton and mercerized braid, and 7 cents a bundle for taping necks and arms with silk braid. She receives 8 cents a bundle for taping and mending seconds. She can tape one dozen union suits in an hour, neck and arms, earning 3 and 4 cents. As she is 71 years of age, she cannot work steadily. She has no children at home, but her husband occasionally helps her when he is out of work. The mill delivers the union suits.

ANNUAL EARNINGS OF A TAPER OF UNDERWEAR.

Date			Number of bundles received	Rate of pay in cents	Earnings
Jan.	17, 1916	-----	12	6	\$.72
	21, 1916	-----	13	6	.78
	25, 1916	-----	7	7	.49
	28, 1916	-----	11	7	.77
Feb.	2, 1916	-----	12	7	.84
	7, 1916	-----	15	8	1.20
	9, 1916	-----	14	7	.98
	15, 1916	-----	18	7	1.26
	21, 1916	-----	6	7	.42
	21, 1916	-----	8	6	.48
	23, 1916	-----	10	6	.60
	29, 1916	-----	12	8	.96
Mar.	3, 1916	-----	12	6	.72
	7, 1916	-----	6	6	.36
	11, 1916	-----	16	6	.96
	16, 1916	-----	15	8	1.20
	21, 1916	-----	23	8	1.84
	25, 1916	-----	16	6	.96
	30, 1916	-----	17	6	1.02
April	1, 1916	-----	18	6	\$1.08
	8, 1916	-----	18	6	1.08
	12, 1916	-----	20	6	1.20
	15, 1916	-----	11	6	.66
	20, 1916	-----	10	6	.60
	27, 1916	-----	10	6	.60
May	1, 1916	-----	8	6	.48
	1, 1916	-----	6	7	.42
	5, 1916	-----	15	6	.90
	8, 1916	-----	10	6	.60
	8, 1916	-----	10	6	.60
	12, 1916	-----	20	6	1.20
	27, 1916	-----	22	6	1.32
June	1, 1916	-----	15	6	.90
	6, 1916	-----	14	6	.84
	9, 1916	-----	20	3	.60
	13, 1916	-----	15	6	.90
July	21, 1916	-----	10	3	.30
	21, 1916	-----	10	6	.60
	24, 1916	-----	14	6	.84
	28, 1916	-----	13	6	.78
Aug.	2, 1916	-----	12	6	.72
	4, 1916	-----	10	3	.30
	8, 1916	-----	10	3	.30
	10, 1916	-----	12	3	.36
	10, 1916	-----	12	6	.72
	16, 1916	-----	10	3	.30
	16, 1916	-----	10	7	.70
	19, 1916	-----	9	6	.54
	25, 1916	-----	10	6	.60
	29, 1916	-----	13	6	.78
	31, 1916	-----	9	3	.27
	5, 1916	-----	6	3	.18
Sept.	5, 1916	-----	4	6	.24
	7, 1916	-----	10	6	.60
	12, 1916	-----	12	6	.72
	14, 1916	-----	6	6	.36
	14, 1916	-----	9	6	.54
	25, 1916	-----	10	4	.40
	25, 1916	-----	10	6	.60
	29, 1916	-----	20	6	1.20
	4, 1916	-----	20	6	1.20
	10, 1916	-----	12	7	.84
Oct.	10, 1916	-----	3	6	.18
	10, 1916	-----	3	7	.21
	13, 1916	-----	17	6	1.02
	21, 1916	-----	12	7	.84
	25, 1916	-----	10	6	.60
	27, 1916	-----	12	7	.84
	31, 1916	-----	15	6	.90
	2, 1916	-----	15	6	.90
	7, 1916	-----	15	6	.90
	10, 1916	-----	15	6	.90
Nov.	15, 1916	-----	12	6	.72
	21, 1916	-----	3	7	.21
	21, 1916	-----	4	3	.12
	21, 1916	-----	5	6	.30
	25, 1916	-----	1	7	.07
	25, 1916	-----	11	6	.66

Annual earnings of taper of underwear—(Continued).

Date		Number of bundles received	Rate of pay in cents	Earnings
Dec.	1, 1916-----	12	6	.72
	5, 1916-----	12	6	.72
	6, 1916-----	10	6	.60
	12, 1916-----	12	6	.72
	14, 1916-----	10	6	.60
	14, 1916-----	5	7	.35
	19, 1916-----	15	7	1.05
	23, 1916-----	8	6	.48
	23, 1916-----	6	7	.42
Total annual earnings,				\$60.56

CASE L: A taper of underwear runs braid in the necks and arms of women's undershirts and union suits, ties the ends of the braid in a bow, and trims them. She also buttons many of the garments. She receives from 1 to 1½ cents for taping the necks of a dozen garments, and 3 and 4 cents for necks and arms. Occasionally she mends "seconds" at a rate of one cent for a dozen garments. She works 8 hours a day, 5 days in a week, and 5 hours on Saturday,—45 hours a week, and makes about 6 cents an hour. The old mother does the housework and occasionally helps with the taping. A team from the factory delivers and collects the material. The worker was employed in the knitting mill before marriage.

EARNINGS OF A TAPER OF UNDERWEAR FOR ONE YEAR
(IDLE TWO WEEKS)

April	15, 1916.	\$2.34
April	22, 1916.	3.26
May	6, 1916.	4.37
May	13, 1916.	3.47
May	20, 1916.	3.91
May	27, 1916.	2.60
June	10, 1916.	4.01
June	24, 1916.	4.50
July,	1, 1916.	3.62
July	8, 1916.	3.50
July	15, 1916.	2.56
July	29, 1916.	6.61
August	19, 1916.	2.98
September	9, 1916.	7.08
September	16, 1916.	2.89
September	30, 1916.	6.50
October	14, 1916.	4.46
October	28, 1916.	5.00
November	11, 1916.	5.15
December	2, 1916.	8.15
December	23, 1916.	8.41
December	30, 1916.	3.21
January	6, 1917.	4.00
January	13, 1917.	2.75
January	20, 1917.	4.00
January	27, 1917.	2.10
February	3, 1917.	4.00
February	10, 1917.	3.40
February	24, 1917.	6.70
March	3, 1917.	3.75
March	10, 1917.	3.05
March	17, 1917.	2.85
March	24, 1917.	3.05
March	31, 1917.	3.44
April	7, 1917.	2.54

Total yearly earnings \$144.21

CASE M: A family tapes underwear for 2 cents a dozen garments. The children tape the necks of shirts for two hours each evening. The mother ties the tape of all the garments and turns them. One son carries the work to and from the mill.

EARNINGS EACH DAY OF FAMILY OF TAPERS.

Evelyn, 8 years of age, 3 doz. necks,	\$.06
Florence, 11 years of age, 6 doz. necks,12
Ethel, 12 years of age, 9 doz. necks,18
Norman, 14 years of age, 9 doz. necks,18
Mrs. W., 3 doz. necks,06

Total daily earnings of the family, \$.60

CASE N: A glove finisher draws three small threads and nine heavy threads at two ends of the stitching on the back of each glove, to the wrong side, and receives 3 cents for a dozen pairs of gloves. When she knots and ties each thread in addition, she receives 8 cents for a dozen pairs. She works very irregularly for "pin money." She can pull, knot and cut the threads of a dozen pairs in two hours, thus earning 4 cents an hour. Her husband, employed in a department store, sometimes helps her in the evening, and her son (12 years of age) carries the material to and from the factory. A forewoman in the mill taught her the process.

EARNINGS OF A GLOVE FINISHER FOR THREE WEEKS.

March 9, 1917, 2 doz. pairs gloves at 8 cts. a doz.....	\$.16
March 10, 1917, 4 doz. pairs gloves at 8 cts a doz.....	.32
March 13, 1917, 4 doz. pairs gloves at 8 cts. a doz.....	.32
March 14, 1917, 4 doz. pairs gloves at 8 cts. a doz.....	.32
March 17, 1917, 4 doz. pairs gloves at 8 cts. a doz.....	.32
March 19, 1917, 4 doz. pairs gloves at 8 cts. a doz.....	.32
March 20, 1917, 4 doz. pairs gloves at 8 cts. a doz.....	.32
March 22, 1917, 10 doz. pairs gloves at 3 cts. a doz.....	.30
March 23, 1917, 8 doz. pairs gloves at 3 cts. a doz.....	.24
March 24, 1917, 4 doz. pairs gloves at 8 cts. a doz.....	.32
March 28, 1917, 11½ doz. pairs gloves at 3 cts. a doz.....	.35
March 29, 1917, 8 doz. pairs gloves at 3 cts. a doz.....	.24

Total earnings for three weeks, \$3.53

CASE O: A home worker separates a bolt of 75 yards of lace into strips from one inch to three inches in width and winds the strips of lace on a spool. She receives 5 cents for 144 yards. She can prepare for market a bolt of lace in five or ten hours and earns 85 cents for the process, or from \$1½ to 17 cents an hour. Her family income consists of the interest upon a compensation given her through the death of her husband in a trolley collision, and the earnings of a daughter (15 years old) who makes \$7.50 a week at the hosiery mill. She and a younger daughter work at home for the owner of the lace factory whenever it is necessary to supplement further the family income. The home work requires no skill, although the mother has had previous experience in running a power machine in a factory before marriage.

EARNINGS OF A FINISHER OF LACE FOR EIGHT WEEKS.

August 15, 1916, 28 gross of lace,.....	\$1.40
August 30, 1916, 113 gross of lace,.....	5.65
September 15, 1916, 120 gross of lace,.....	6.00

September	30, 1916,	98 gross of lace,.....	4.90
October	15, 1916,	103 gross of lace,.....	5.15
October	30, 1916,	81 gross of lace,.....	4.05
November	15, 1916,	102 gross of lace,.....	5.10
November	30, 1916,	129 gross of lace,.....	6.45
December	15, 1916,	128 gross of lace,.....	6.40
December	30, 1916,	105 gross of lace,.....	5.25
January	15, 1917,	174 gross of lace,.....	8.70
January	30, 1917,	162 gross of lace,.....	8.10
February	15, 1917,	138 gross of lace,.....	6.90
February	28, 1917,	101 gross of lace,.....	5.05
March	15, 1917,	90 gross of lace,.....	4.50
March	30, 1917,	141 gross of lace,.....	7.05

Total earnings for eight months, \$90.65

CASE P: A home worker fills boxes with menthol cough drops. Each box contains 40 cartons, for the packing of which she receives $3\frac{3}{4}$ cents. She folds cartons in the evening, and fills them in the morning and afternoon, usually with the help of her husband and often a friend. She declares that she does home work because she is lonely and wishes to occupy her time. She has had no factory experience and works but nine weeks in a year.

EARNINGS OF A PACKER OF COUGH DROPS FOR NINE WEEKS.

Week 1,	40 boxes of menthol cough drops,	\$1.50
Week 2,	52 boxes of menthol cough drops,	1.95
Week 3,	120 boxes of menthol cough drops,	4.50
Week 4,	72 boxes of menthol cough drops,	2.70
Week 5,	100 boxes of menthol cough drops,	3.75
Week 6,	92 boxes of menthol cough drops,	3.45
Week 7,	57 boxes of menthol cough drops,	2.14
Week 8,	104 boxes of menthol cough drops,	3.90
Week 9,	27 boxes of menthol cough drops,	1.02

Total earnings for nine weeks, \$24.91

CASE Q: A leather sorter receives 2 cents a pound for trimming and sorting scraps of shoe leather. Her husband is a musician who often has slack work. He with the three children (12, 11 and 7 years of age) help to trim and sort. The family work at irregular times, but often until midnight. They used the earnings from home work to buy a phonograph, and to add to their bank account.

EARNINGS OF A LEATHER SORTER FOR FOUR MONTHS.

October	19, 1916,.....	\$2.16
October	21, 1916,.....	5.10
October	30, 1916,.....	7.36
November	6, 1916,.....	7.08
November	13, 1916,.....	5.72
November	20, 1916,.....	8.66
November	27, 1916,.....	5.26
December	4, 1916,.....	4.53

December	11, 1916,	9.99½
December	18, 1916,	3.80
December	27, 1916,	7.56½
January	3, 1917,	3.24
January	10, 1917,	8.63½
January	17, 1917,	2.45
January	24, 1917,	3.82½
January	31, 1917,	6.91
February	6, 1917,	4.41
February	15, 1917,	4.31
February	19, 1917,	8.07

Total earnings for four months, \$109.08½

CASE R: A silk picker receives 20, 25, and 35 cents for picking a bolt of silk. She can give no estimate of her hourly rate of earnings, dependent as they are upon the quality of silk and the care taken in weaving. She works steadily 6 or 7 hours a day, with an occasional day or two when she has no work. During the two weeks ending October 31, her sister helped her. During the two weeks ending April 3rd, she was house cleaning, and could work but a few hours.

EARNINGS OF A SILK PICKER FOR TWENTY SIX WEEKS.

October	17, 1916,	\$6.58
October	31, 1916,	14.25
November	14, 1916,	5.40
November	28, 1916,	4.40
December	12, 1916,	3.35
December	26, 1916,	1.95
January	9, 1917,	3.35
January	23, 1917,	2.70
February	6, 1917,	1 75
February	20, 1917,	2.10
March	6, 1917,	2.25
March	20, 1917,	2.05
April	3, 1917,	.90

Total earnings for 26 weeks, \$51.03

WAGES PAID UMBRELLA FINISHERS.

The following is a statement of wages paid in 1917, to 42 home workers finishing umbrellas. The women worked irregularly from one week to twenty weeks during the year. In October and November they had rush orders; in summer they were idle. They received 2 cents apiece for tipping umbrellas with certain deductions in small fines for imperfect work.

Worker	1, earnings for 20 weeks,	\$134.00
Worker	2, earnings for 16 weeks,	86.00
Worker	3, earnings for 16 weeks,	61.86
Worker	4, earnings for 16 weeks,	54.49

Worker 5, earnings for 16 weeks,	49.46
Worker 6, earnings for 16 weeks,	45.17
Worker 7, earnings for 16 weeks,	45.05
Worker 8, earnings for 16 weeks,	38.60
Worker 9, earnings for 14 weeks,	67.00
Worker 10, earnings for 14 weeks,	62.85
Worker 11, earnings for 14 weeks,	60.06
Worker 12, earnings for 14 weeks,	52.12
Worker 13, earnings for 14 weeks,	51.93
Worker 14, earnings for 14 weeks,	44.78
Worker 15, earnings for 14 weeks,	43.27
Worker 16, earnings for 14 weeks,	34.49
Worker 17, earnings for 14 weeks,	33.65
Worker 18, earnings for 14 weeks,	27.64
Worker 19, earnings for 14 weeks,	33.78
Worker 20, earnings for 12 weeks,	35.68
Worker 21, earnings for 8 weeks,	26.90
Worker 22, earnings for 8 weeks,	16.00
Worker 23, earnings for 6 weeks,	13.45
Worker 24, earnings for 6 weeks,	10.00
Worker 25, earnings for 6 weeks,	9.00
Worker 26, earnings for 6 weeks,	7.72
Worker 27, earnings for 6 weeks,	7.00
Worker 28, earnings for 6 weeks,	7.00
Worker 29, earnings for 6 weeks,	5.00
Worker 30, earnings for 4 weeks,	9.18
Worker 31, earnings for 4 weeks,	8.65
Worker 32, earnings for 4 weeks,	7.00
Worker 33, earnings for 2 weeks,	11.00
Worker 34, earnings for 2 weeks,	6.70
Worker 35, earnings for 2 weeks,	6.00
Worker 36, earnings for 2 weeks,	6.00
Worker 37, earnings for 2 weeks,	6.00
Worker 38, earnings for 2 weeks,	5.00
Worker 39, earnings for 2 weeks,	4.00
Worker 40, earnings for 1 week,	4.00
Worker 41, earnings for 1 week,	3.00
Worker 42, earnings for 1 week,	2.00

Total earnings of 42 home workers during 1917 \$1232.48

Average earnings of each home worker \$29.34

WAGES PAID FINISHERS OF CLOTHING FOR TWO WEEKS.

The following is the pay roll of the first two weeks in January, 1917, of a sub-contractor, who has a workshop over a store, in the Italian quarter in Philadelphia, and who employs 70 Italian coat finishers and buttonhole makers. Nine of his workers had taken out no work during the time. The wages of this pay roll for two weeks vary from \$.64 to \$8.89 with a median wage of \$4.05. The buttonhole makers are the best paid of all workers. These earnings are often representative of wages of a family group, rather than of a single home worker.

Workers	Earnings for two weeks	Workers	Earnings for two weeks
1, -----	\$0 64	32, -----	4 11
2, -----	93	33, -----	4 11
3, -----	96	34, -----	4 12
4, -----	1 05	35, -----	4 36
5, -----	1 59	36, -----	4 45
6, -----	1 59	37, -----	4 48
7, -----	1 80	38, -----	4 65
8, -----	2 21	39, -----	4 71
9, -----	2 37	40, -----	4 73
10, -----	2 50	41, -----	4 79
11, -----	2 57	42, -----	4 95
12, -----	2 64	43, -----	5 06
13, -----	2 73	44, -----	5 14
14, -----	2 81	45, -----	5 18
15, -----	2 85	46, -----	5 20
16, -----	3 02	47, -----	5 24
17, -----	3 07	48, -----	5 25
18, -----	3 29	49, -----	5 26
19, -----	3 37	50, -----	5 39
20, -----	3 38	51, -----	5 46
21, -----	3 44	52, -----	5 88
22, -----	3 48	53, -----	5 88
23, -----	3 50	54, -----	5 90
24, -----	3 60	55, -----	6 03
25, -----	3 77	56, -----	6 05
26, -----	3 77	57, -----	6 11
27, -----	3 78	58, -----	6 13
28, -----	3 83	59, -----	7 02
29, -----	3 99	60, -----	7 50
30, -----	4 04	61, -----	8 89
31, -----	4 05		

APPENDIX II.

LEGISLATION REGULATING INDUSTRIAL HOME WORK IN
PENNSYLVANIA.

HOUSING ACT OF 1915.

Cities of the First Class.

1915, June 3, P. L. 954 No. 420 6 Pur. 6810.

Section 32. No room or rooms in any dwelling-house, rooming-house, or tenement which are used for manufacturing purposes shall be occupied, at any one time, by more persons than would give to each occupant at least four hundred cubic feet of air space; and no such room or rooms shall be so occupied, in any instance, except by a permit from the Bureau or Board of Health, which permit shall expire not later than the calendar year for which it is issued. No such permit shall be granted if such use would create dust, foul odors, or undue noise, liable to affect injuriously the health or comfort of those engaged therein, or of the tenants, occupants, or neighbors."

INDUSTRIAL HOME WORK

The following regulations governing Industrial Home Work, submitted for a final public hearing at Philadelphia on May 4, 1922 were adopted by the Industrial Board on Tuesday May 9, 1922. Effective September 1, 1922.

RULE W-23

M-37

SECTION 1. DEFINITIONS

The term HOME WORK shall mean the manufacturing, finishing, repairing, altering or handling in a home of any article or articles, the material for which has been furnished by the employer.

The term EMPLOYER shall mean any person, firm or corporation who furnishes or distributes, directly or indirectly to a home in which Industrial home work is done, any material to be manufactured, finished, repaired, altered or handled in any way.

The term HOME WORKER shall mean any person or persons in a home who manufacture, finish, repair, alter or handle in any manner, material furnished by the employer.

The term HOME shall mean any dwelling, tenement house, apartment house or lodging house, in which a room or rooms are devoted or used for Industrial Home Work.

The term WORK ROOM shall mean any room or rooms in a home used for Industrial Home Work.

The term MINOR, as used in these rulings shall mean any persons under twenty-one years of age.

SECTION 2. SPECIFICATIONS

(a) The employer shall not furnish material to any home worker until a certificate of health has been presented from the State or local department of health, setting forth that the home has been inspected and found to be in a clean and sanitary condition and free from any infectious, contagious or communicable disease. Such certificate shall be valid for a period of one year from date of issue unless revoked by the Commissioner for cause.

(b) The Employer shall further require the furnishing of the following complete data upon forms supplied by the Department of Labor and Industry setting forth:

1. Character of home work
2. Street and number of the home
3. The exact location of the work room in such home
4. The name and age of every person doing such home work

(c) The employer shall keep this data on file in his office readily accessible to representatives of the Department of Labor and Industry.

(d) The employer upon being notified by the local or State Department of Health of the existence of any infectious, contagious or communicable diseases in a home in which Industrial Home Work is done shall immediately withdraw all articles or material from such home and said articles or material shall be immediately sterilized.

(e) The employer shall not furnish any further articles or material for home work to said home until a certificate of health from the State or local Department of Health is presented setting forth that all health requirements have been fully met.

(f) The provisions of the Child Labor Law (1915) and the rulings of the Industrial Board relating to the said law shall apply to Industrial Home Work in all particulars.

(g) The provisions of the Women's Law (1913) and the rulings of the Industrial Board relating to said law shall apply to home work in all particulars.

SECTION 3. FEMALE PROHIBITIONS FOR INDUSTRIAL HOME WORK.

1. No female shall be employed more than 10 hours in any one day, nor more than 54 hours in any one week, nor more than 6 days consecutively.

2. No female under twenty-one years of age shall be employed before 6 A. M. or after 9 P. M.

3. Females shall be given not less than 45 minutes for the midday meal.

4. No female over twenty-one years of age shall be employed before 6 A. M. or later than 10 P. M.

5. No female shall be required to work more than 6 hours continuously without an interval of 45 minutes between work periods.

SECTION 4. CHILD LABOR PROHIBITIONS FOR INDUSTRIAL HOME WORK

1. Minors under 14 shall not be employed in Industrial Home Work.

2. No minor under 16 may be employed for more than 51 hours a week, nor more than 9 hours a day, nor before 6 o'clock in the morning nor after 8 o'clock in the evening.

3. Every minor between 14 and 16 years of age must attend, for the equivalent of not less than 8 hours each week, a continuation school in the school district where said minor is employed.

4. These 8 hours shall be reckoned in the 51 hours a week permitted above.

5. Minors between 14 and 16 shall not work without an employment certificate, which certificate must be kept on file by the employer.

6. General employment certificates are required where children under 16 are employed all the time.

7. Vacation employment certificates are required where minors under 16 work at any time except when they are required to attend school.

8. Employment certificates may be issued only by the District Superintendent, Supervising Principal, or Secretary of the Board of School Directors, or other school officials, deputed in writing by any of the foregoing officers authorized by law to issue such certificate.

9. No minor under 16, who has not completed the work of the 6th grade in public schools, shall be entitled to an employment certificate.

10. Before an employment certificate be issued, the prospective employer must make a statement in writing that he expects to give employment to a minor applying for such certificate.

11. Employers must acknowledge, in writing, to the issuing officer, receipt of an employment certificate within 3 days after beginning of minor's employment.

12. Upon termination of employment, the employer must return the employment certificate BY MAIL to the issuing school official.

APPENDIX III.
QUESTIONNAIRE AND SCHEDULE.

A: QUESTIONNAIRE SENT TO MANUFACTURERS.

Definition: By Industrial home work is meant production of any kind carried on for a manufacturer, merchant or his agent, by persons not working on the business premises of their employer. They may work in their own homes, or in rooms or workshops, **other** than in their own homes, which they have provided at their own expense.

1. Industry:
(Refers to the general character of the work performed by the establishment; for example, wearing apparel.)
 2. Product:
(Refers to the particular output; for example, men's shirts.)
 3. Describe the kind of work done off the premises. If no work of any kind has ever been given out by any establishment, write "NONE" and return this schedule in the enclosed stamped envelope in order that further correspondence may be rendered unnecessary.....
.....
.....
 4. Has the work been distributed by agents or contractors or directly from the establishment?
 5. State the maximum number of homeworkers employed during the last busy season:In the months of....., 19
 6. What was the total amount of wages paid to home workers during the last financial year of your establishment?\$....., 19.....
for year ending
 7. If homework was given out in former years, but is now abandoned, kindly state when it was given up19....., and why?
.....
(If any reason other than or in addition to the present shortage of labor has affected your custom of giving out home work, kindly state the reason.)
Signed
Name of firm
Street
Town or City
- Date:19.....

APPENDIX IV.

A SELECTED BIBLIOGRAPHY OF STUDIES OF INDUSTRIAL HOME
WORK MADE IN VARIOUS COUNTRIES.

UNITED STATES.

United States report on condition of women and child wage earners, *Men's ready made clothing*, 1911, Vol. II, pp. 215-318. (Investigation of the clothing industry in the large cities.)

United States report of the Industrial Commission, 1900-1902, Vols. VII, VIII, X, XIV, XV, XVI, XIX. (Testimony, reports, and legislation in regard to the manufacture of clothing and cigars.)

State of New York, Report of the Factory Investigating Commission, 1912-1915, (Home work in the tenement houses of New York City.)

Women's Educational and Industrial Union, Boston, *Industrial home work in Massachusetts*, 1914. (Inquiry relative to the extent of home work with facts and conditions relative to home workers, industries, and the public. Bibliography.)

Butler, Elizabeth B, *Women and the trades*, The Pittsburgh Survey, 1907-1908. (The stogie industry and the clothing trades of Pittsburgh.)

Harris, Henry J. "Present condition of the hand working and domestic industries of Germany," *United States Department of Labor*, Bulletin No. 40, pp. 509-548. (Various existing systems of home production defined.)

Van Kleeck, Mary, *Artificial flower makers*, 1913. (Inquiry relative to the trade in New York City.)

UNITED KINGDOM.

Reports from the select committee of the House of Lords on the sweating system together with the proceedings of the committee, minutes of evidence and appendix, 1st to 5th reports, 1888-1890. (Evidence pointing to the existence of the sweating system, and to the evils connected with it.)

Reports from the select committee on home work together with the proceedings of the committee, minutes of evidence, appendix and index ordered by the House of Commons to be printed 8 August 1907, and the 22 July 1908. (Evidence concerning the low earnings of home workers with recommendations as to wages boards, which findings led to the enactment of the Trade Board Act of 1909, and the application of the minimum wage.)

Report to the Board of Agriculture for Scotland on home industries in the Highlands and Islands, 1914. (Report presented to the Houses of Parliament by command of his majesty.)

Reports from commissioners, inspectors, and others, Irish linen trade, Vol. XXXIV, 1912-1913. (Report presented to the Houses of Parliament by command of his majesty.)

Women's Industrial Council, *Home industries of women in London*, 1908. (An account of the development and present condition of home work in relation to the legal protection of the workers.)

A short bibliography of sweating and a list of the principal works upon and references to the legal minimum wage. Prepared in the library of the London School of Economics and Political Science, 1906.)

SCHEDULE OF HOME WORKER.

Tabulation Number		Chief Worker—Card 1		Agents Number	
Firm's Name (Industry)		Product			
1. Name of worker	2. Address	3. Source			
4. Age 5. M. F. 6. S. M. W. D. 7. Birthplace	8. Birthplace a. father	b. mother			
9. Years in U. S.	10. Former work	11. Health	12. How living		
13. Middleman	14. Address	15. Kind of work			
16. Description of work					
17. Groupwork, number	18. Years at home work	19. How learned	20. Reason for		
21. Method of finding	22. Time with firm	23. Transportation			
24. Hourly rate of work	25. Rate of pay	26. Pay per hour	27. Weekly output		
28. Hours of homework a day	b. week c. Sunday	29. Earnings weekly	30. Estimated weeks busy last 12 months		
31. Estimated yearly earnings	32. Time of day for work	33. Season a. busy	b. Slack		
34. Paid regularly	35. Charges a. equipment	b. materials	c. transportation d. others		
36. Reason for not working			37. House work done by		
38. Outside work last 12 months	a. Kind				
b. hours weekly	c. earnings weekly	d. estimated weeks busy	e. estimated yearly earnings		
39. Dwelling Tenement	40. Location a. floor b. front rear	41. Rent monthly	42. Number of rooms		
43. Total residents	44. Condition of plumbing				
45. Underdrainage	46. Previous infection				
47. Workroom a. room used	b. dimensions	c. lighting	d. heat	e. cleanliness	

Industrial home work in Pennsylvania

Agent

Corola Woerishoffer Graduate Department, Social Economy, Bryn Mawr College, 1916.

Date

Tabulation number

Child Worker—Card 2

Agent's number

Name

Address

49. Other Members of the Family, including children 14 years and over

a. Name	b. Relation to worker	c. Age	d. Occupation	e. Weekly earnings	f. Est. weeks busy last 12 months	Home work		i. Est weeks busy last 12 mos.	Reason for not working
						g. Kind	h. w'kly earnings		

49. Other Members of the Family—Children under 14 years

a. Name	b. Relation to worker	c. Age	d. Name of School	e. Grade	f. Kind of work	Hours	
						g. Day	h. Week

50. Other sources of income

51. Number in family

52. Number boarders a. M.

b. F. c. doing home work

53. Do shophands take home work at night?

54. License, date

55. Last inspection a. date

b. extent

56. Violations of the law

57. Other home workers

58. Other firms who give out home work

Agent

Date

Industrial homework in Pennsylvania—Carola Woerishoffer Graduate Department, Social Economy, Bryn Mawr College, 1916.

- Sweated industries, being a hand book of the "Daily News" exhibition*, compiled by Richard Mudie Smith, 1906.
- Black, Clementina, *Sweated industry and the minimum wage*, 1910.
- Booth, Charles, *Life and labor of the people in London*, 1893, Vols. III, IV. (Manufacture in East London of ready made clothes, lingerie, artificial flowers, millinery, shoes, household goods, tobacco.)
- Irwin, Margaret, *Home work amongst women*, 1896. (Report of an inquiry into shirt-making, shirt-finishing and minor trades, for the Glasgow Council for Women's Trades.)
- Tawney, R. H. *The establishment of minimum rates in the chainmaking industry under the Trade Boards Act of 1909*, 1914.
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- Office du Travail, *Enquete sur le travail a domicile dans l'industrie de la chaussure*, 1914.
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- Aftalion, Albert, *Le developpement de la fabrique et le travail a domicile dans les industries de l'habillement*, 1906. (The evolution of the clothing industries,—hosiery, boots and shoes, men's and women's clothing, into a factory system, with the factors favorable and unfavorable to this development.)
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- Meny, Georges, *Le travail a domicile, ses miseres, ses remedes*, 1910. (The evils of home work and the minimum wage.)
- Picquenard, Ch. et Morel, Jean, "La guerre, et la question des salaires." *Revue Politique et Litteraire, Revue Bleue*, 1916, pp. 67-80. (Application of the minimum wage in the manufacture of army clothes.)

BELGIUM.

- Office du Travail, *Les industries a domicile en Bel. 1899-1909*, 10 vols. (Reports of investigation in various districts of Belgium as to the manufacture of arms, cutlery, nails, furniture, rope, woolen cloth, cotton cloth, linen, embroidered goods, straw braid, lace, women's apparel, men's garments and furnishings,

knit goods, shoes and gloves. Historical sketch with illustrations of the development of the industry; the conditions of work; marketing of the product; labor legislation; relations between manufacturers, contractors, and home workers in regard to the labor contract; wages, hours of labor, sanitary conditions; employer's and employee's associations.

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VITA.

I, Agnes Mary Hadden Byrnes, was born in Chicago Illinois, my parents being Thomas Byrnes and Margaret Hadden Byrnes. I attended the public schools of Evanston, Illinois, Northwestern University, University of Chicago, Columbia University, and Bryn Mawr College. I was elected a member of the Phi Beta Kappa Society (1915). I received the degree of Bachelor of Arts from Northwestern University (1915), the degree of Master of Arts from Columbia University (1916). I held the Susan B. Anthony Memorial Scholarship at Bryn Mawr College (1916-17), and the Carola Woerishoffer Fellowship in Social Economy and Social Research (1917-1918). I was the Statistical Tabular Critic of the Bureau of Research of the War Trade Board (1918-1919). I was instructor and assistant professor of social work in the Margaret Morrison Division of the Carnegie Institute of Technology (1919 to date).

It was my privilege to study at Columbia University with Professors Edward T. Devine, Franklin H. Giddings, Robert E. Chaddock, and Samuel McCune Lindsay, at Bryn Mawr College with Professors Susan M. Kingsbury, Charles G. Fenwick and Theodore de Laguna.

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